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### JOURNAL

OF THE

# ASIATIC SOCIETY OF BENGAL.

### VOL. LXVII.

PART I. (HISTORY, ANTIQUITIES, &c.)

Nos. 1 to IV.—1898: (WITH 14 PLATES).

EDITED BY THE

HONORARY PHILOLOGICAL SECRETARY,

"It will flourish, if naturalists, chemists, antiquaries, philologers, and men of science in different parts of Asia, will commit their observations to writing, and send them to the Asiatic Society at Calcutta. It will languish, if such communications shall be long intermitted; and it will die away, if they shall entirely cease."

SIR WM. JONES.

#### CALCUTTA:

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### ERRATA.

P.	$\mathbf{L}.$	$\mathbf{For}$	Read
32	Last	$\underline{ts}ok^u$	$\underline{t}\underline{s}\check{o}k^u$
27	,,	$\underline{ts}wak^{\overline{u}}$	$\underline{t} \underline{s} reve{ ho} k^{ar{u}}$
34	16	$dob^{u}$	$d\check{o}b^{oldsymbol{u}}$
"	,,	$dwabi ilde{n}$	$d\breve{o}bi\widetilde{n}$
3 <b>5</b>	6	39	38
47	11-14	Substitute the following-	

If the final consonant of a noun in this declension is preceded by ज u, that ज u is changed to ज a in all cases except the Nominative Singular. Thus, वाँड्र wādur, a monkey; nom. pl., वाँड्र wādur; instr. pl. वाँड्रो स्तिन wādarau sūtin: करन karun, the act of doing; acc. sg. करनम् karanas: यस्त् pŏstukh, a book; nom. pl., यस् postakh.

<b>7</b> 5	4	${m kuna} sat reve{a} th$	kunasatath (and so throughout the seventies up to 78).
,,	24	$kunanam \"ath$	kunanamath (and so throughout the nineties up to 99).
91	3	$w  ext{ or } v$	$w  ext{ or } v,  ext{ or }$
196	4	ग्राक्षेञ् grākañ	प्राकञ् grakañ
232	19	substances	substantives
294	8	प्रनिवासिनश्व	प्रति॰
295	12	<b>शासनसनुभति</b> ०	॰मति॰

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## JOURNAL

OF THE

# ASIATIC SOCIETY OF BENGAL.

Part I.-HISTORY, LITERATURE, &c.

No. I.-1898.

Notes on new inscriptions discovered by Major Deane.—By M. A. Stein.

Part I.

(With Plates I-VII.)

[Read December, 1897.]

It was in the autumn of 1894, that a paper read by M. Senart, before the Tenth International Congress of Orientalists and subsequently published in the Journal asiatique of drew the attention of all Indologists to the remarkable series of epigraphical documents, which the zeal of Major H. A. Deane, c.s.i., then Deputy Commissioner of Peshawer, had brought to light on the northern border of this district and in the independent territory beyond it. These inscriptions from the ancient Gandhāra and Udyāna have attracted all the more interest as the characters which appear in the great majority of them, have previously been wholly unknown and differ strangely from any known system of Indian writing.

Major Deane has since continued his epigraphical search with unfailing energy, notwithstanding the heavy and responsible official duties which his appointment as Political Officer during the Chitral campaign and subsequently as Political Agent for Swat and Dir must

<sup>1</sup> Notes d'Épigraphie Indienne.—V. Les Récentes Découvertes du Major Deane, Journal asiatique, 1894, tome iv., pp. 332-353; 504-518. Also in reprint, Notes d'Épigraphie Indienne, Fascic. 5., 1895.

have thrown upon him. The exceptional success which has attended his efforts in the interest of research, is amply illustrated by the fact that the number of new inscriptions which he has forwarded to Lahore since M. Senart's publication, is nearly twice as great again as the number comprised in the latter. These epigraphical documents have reached Lahore either in the form of the actual stones where these were obtainable, or as ink impressions on paper or cloth, taken by Major Deane's agents in the case of inscriptions beyond British territory which could not be secured otherwise.

The stones with inscriptions have been deposited without exception in the Lahore Museum which contains now also the stones previously communicated to M. Senart for publication. In order to keep together in the same place, as far as possible, all that bears on the epigraphy of those interesting regions, Major Deane has been kind enough to entrust to me the impressions above referred to. For this mark of confidence which I must value all the more in view of the great trouble and the expense connected with the collection of these materials, I may be allowed to express here publicly my grateful acknowledgments.

By making me in this manner the depositary for at least a part of his discoveries, Major Deane has also, as it were, put me under the obligation of bringing them to the notice of fellow students. From a personal point of view I might well have wished that the honour of this first publication may have fallen on one more competent than myself and better able to do it justice. The want of necessary leisure at Lahore and the obligation of devoting whatever time was at my disposal in Kashmir, to my translation of Kalhana's Chronicle, have prevented me from making that minute study of the inscriptions 'in unknown characters' which seems indispensable even for the slightest advance towards their decipherment. As these inscriptions form the great majority of the new finds, I must also regret my want of acquaintance with that field of philological research which, as will be seen below, might possibly furnish a clue to these puzzling documents.

Under these circumstances, I hope to meet best the interests of those who are in a position to undertake a serious study of these monuments, if I avail myself without further delay of the opportunity offered by the Asiatic Society's kindness in order to publish the new inscriptions in unknown characters in faithful mechanical reproductions. To the latter I have added such information regarding the find-spots, present condition, etc., of the inscriptions as Major Deane has communicated either along with the inscriptions themselves or in subsequent letters addressed to me. My own remarks must necessarily be restricted to a few observations which the examination of the docu-

ments themselves and the grouping on the map of their places of origin have suggested to me.

In a separate notice I intend to discuss the few short Sanskrit inscriptions in Çāradā characters which have reached Lahore along with those in unknown characters.

The order in which the inscriptions have been shown in the following list, is chiefly based on topographical considerations which will be explained below. I have indicated for each inscription or group of inscriptions the information received regarding it from Major Deane, but have reserved further details regarding the position of the find-spots for the succeeding remarks. In each case it has been shown whether the stone itself or only an impression has been received. For purposes of subsequent reference I have given in brackets the numbers which the inscriptions bear in the Museum Catalogue or in my own list of impressions. The plates accompanying this paper show the inscriptions reduced, according to a simple scale, to one-half, one-fourth or one-eighth of the original. The actual size of the characters and of the written surface of a stone can thus be ascertained with ease and accuracy.

In the case of all stones deposited in the Museum and in that of a number of impressions, the reproductions given in the plates have been prepared from photographs which my friend Mr. F. H. Andrews, Principal of the Mayo School of Arts, and Curator of the Lahore Museum, has most kindly placed at my disposal. For the help thus rendered I wish to record here my sincere obligation.

M. Senart's remarks, l.c. pp. 13 sqq., have already made clear the serious difficulty which is caused by the impossibility of determining in most cases the position intended for the inscription, i.e., what is to be considered as its top or foot. For a few inscriptions (Nos. 39, 40, 43, 53) Major Deane has indicated the original position, and this point has accordingly been noted in the list. For the great mass of the stones and impressions, however, no direct evidence of this kind is I have accordingly been obliged to follow M. Senart's example and to arrange the reproductions on the plates either with reference to certain peculiarities in the shape of the stones which suggested a particular position, or by the still less safe guidance of the direction of writing which the characters themselves seemed to me to As I have as little as my learned predecessor succeeded in finding conclusive evidence for any inscription as to the direction in which the characters are to be read, it is scarcely necessary to point out that the position in which all these inscriptions are shown on the plates, is purely conjectural.

1. Stone, obtained from Spankharra. (Mus. 64; scale of reproduction, one-half of original).

2. Stone, found in mound at Khalil Banda (near Toru, Yusufzai).

(Mus. 37; scale one-half).

- 3-19. Impressions on cloth "of small stones found buried together near an old Buddhist wall and at the foot of a cliff. The place is near Darwazgai and about a mile S. S. E. from Spankharra." "These little stones were buried in a small receptacle at the foot of the cliff and covered over with another stone." Nos. 5 and 6 inscribed on two sides of the same stone. (Nos. xxi.-xxxvii.; scale one-half).
- 20. Impression of a stone "in possession of a Sheikh at Span-kharra. It is not known where it was originally found. Used by him for baking his food on." (No. xx.; scale one-half).
- 21-23. Impressions on cloth of 3 small stones sent to Lahore Museum in August 1896. The characters resemble those on impressions 3-19. [A subsequent note by Major Deane informs me that these stones form part of the *Darwazgai* find, but were obtained since the first lot of impressions, *i.e.*, Nos. 3-19.] (Nos. xli.-xliii.; scale one-half).
- 24. Stone "from the hill above *Elai*, Boner; (no ruin near)." (Mus. 65; scale one-half).
- 25. Stone "buried in the soil near an old spring at *Elai*, Boner." (Mus. 63; scale one-half).
- 26. Impression on paper of an inscription at Tangi, near Miangam village, on Ilm, Boner."

(No. i.; scale one-half).

- 27. Impression on cloth "of an inscription on a stone in the wall of the house of a Mulla, *Torsak* in Boner. It is said to have been taken originally from some old ruins with other stones for building purposes." (No. v.; scale one-half).
- 28. Impression on cloth "of a few letters inscribed on a stone lying in the jungle in the *Malandri* Valley which is the continuation of the Sudhum Valley towards the Boner Hills and Malandri Pass." (No. vi.; scale one-half).
- [28b. Impression on paper (No. xixb.) "of an inscription on a stone lying near the village of Padshah in Boner, broken in half," is too
- I have followed throughout in local names the spelling of Major Deane's notes, and have not attempted to transcribe them according to the Society's system, as their actual pronunciation is unknown to me.

indistinct to be reproduced. The few characters of which traces are visible, resemble those of Nos. 26, 28 above.

29. Impression on paper "of a stone at *Ilm-o-Mianz* in Boner, near Padshah and Bichounai on Ilm. It was at one time built into the walls of a Masjid and removed as unfit to be in a Masjid wall. It is still lying in the Masjid in the Miangam village, too large to be moved."

(No. iii.; scale one-eighth.)

30. Impression on paper of "broken bit of stone lying near the other at *Ilm-o-Mianz*, Boner."

(No. ii.; scale one-fourth.)

31. Impression on cloth of inscription "found near Shahbazgarhi." Stone sent to Lahore Museum.

(No. xxxix.; scale one-half.)

32-34. Impressions on cloth of inscriptions "lying close to the village of Chargam in Puran, a country above Boner. They were found bound together, one on the top of the other. Ruins exist near where they were found, but nothing is known as to where they originally came from." In a note dated 13th April, 1896, Major Deane adds: "The three inscriptions are on separate slabs, and the three of them had been fastened together with hasps in order evidently to remove them. As the fastening had been made by the stones having been bored through, I can only conjecture that they were put together by the original inhabitants of the country and they must have lain a long time in the place where they were found."

(Nos. xvii., xviii., xix.; scales one-eighth, one-fourth and one-half, respectively. Impression No. 32 being of exceptional length had to be shown on the plate divided into two portions. A part of the central piece of the impression, measuring  $2\frac{3}{8}$  inches on plate, has been reproduced both in the left and right portions.)

35. Impression on paper of inscription found in "the valley leading up from Surkhavi to Surah in Chamla. It was found about 5 miles from Surkhavi and  $1\frac{1}{2}$  miles from Surah."

(No. xxxviii.; scale one-fourth.)

36. Impressions on cloth of two sides of stone "found at Shera in Amazai territory."

(No. xl.; sent to Lahore Museum; scale one-half.)

37. Stone "found in Asgram."

(Mus. 60; scale one-half.)

38. Stone "found lying amongst ruins at Asgram."

(Mus. 62; scale one-half.)

39. Stone "from Palosdarra; in situ, round edge uppermost."

6

(Mus. 69; scale one-fourth. Reproduced in woodcut by M. Senart, p. 25.)

40. Stone "from Palosdarra; found in situ."

(Mus. 66; scale one-fourth.)

41. Stone "from Palosdarra."

(Mus. 83; scale one-fourth.)

42. Stone "from Palosdarra."

(Mus. 84; scale one-fourth.)

43. Stone "from Suludheri; in situ, standing on end, thin end top." (Mus. 68; scale one-fourth.)

44. Stone "from Khudukhel territory."

(Mus. 82; scale one-fourth.)

45. Stone "from an old wall at Sarpatti, a spur of Mahaban overlooking Chamla."

(Mus. 61; scale one-fourth.)

46. Stone "from Kaldarra, near Dargai."

(Mus. 77; scale one-fourth.)

47. Stone "found at Zangi Khan Banda, Boner. Had been removed from ruin and built into wall of Masjid. Came probably from site of Nos. 48-50."

(Mus. 70; scale one-fourth.)

48-50. Stones "dug up from what appears to be an old Memorial Stupa completely buried in the ground at *Bughdarra* which is the ravine near Zanqi Khan Banda in Boner."

(Mus. 79-81; scale of No. 48 one-fourth, of Nos. 49 and 50 one-half.)

51. Stone "from Khrappa, Panjpao, Boner."

(Mus. 67; thin piece of slatey stone with characters on both sides; scale one-fourth.)

52. Impression on paper of inscription "from rock on hill above Odigram, Swat."

(No. vii.; scale one-fourth.)

53. Impression on paper "from rock near Odigram, Upper Swat."

(No. ix.; scale one-fourth.)

54. Impression on paper "taken from a stone lying near Kanai, Ilaqa Kana, near Ghorband between Swat and the Indus."

(No. viii.; scale one-fourth.)

55-60. Impressions on cloth of Sgraffitti "on rocks found close together on the banks of the Swat river, just above Ramora Fort on the right bank and at the boundary of the Adinzai Valley."

(Nos. xi.-xvi.; scale one-eighth.)

M. Senart had already clearly recognized the fact that the inscriptions before him showed at least three distinct types of writing, each of which, on examining the find-spots of the inscriptions exhibiting it, could be connected with a well-defined locality or territorial division. These types which he accordingly distinguished under the very appropriate name of Spankharra, Boner and Mahaban, are all largely represented among the new inscriptions. It is a fresh proof of M. Senart's well-known penetration and sagacity as an epigraphist that the local distribution of the new inscriptions entirely supports his grouping.

This fact is most convincingly illustrated in the case of M. Senart's first group, that of Spankharra. Though M. Senart had only a single small inscription—probably a fragment—to place under this head, he did not fail to realize that its characters, both in form and execution, differ considerably from those met with in the other two classes. Their curiously irregular scrawly lines made M. Senart compare them rightly enough to mere Sgraffitti. These we now find reappearing on not less than twenty-three specimens which all, with one doubtful exception, come from the same locality or its immediate vicinity. Spankharra lies in Ranizai territory just beyond the northernmost point of the Hashtnagar Tahsil, circ. 71° 42′ E. Long. 34° 27′ N. Lat. according to the Revenue Survey Map of the Peshawar District.<sup>3</sup>

No. 1 is a fragment resembling closely M. Senart's No. 1. More interesting is the collection of small stones Nos. 3-19, 21-23 which were found packed together "in a small receptacle at the foot of a cliff" near Darwazgai, about a mile from Spankharra. It would be of little use in the absence of an accurate description of the spot to make conjectures as to the purpose of this peculiar deposit. But it deserves to be noted that all the little stones show different groups of characters, some so curiously twisted and cursive as to suggest monograms or signatures. Some stones, in particular Nos. 18, 19, seem to contain also a few characters resembling those found on the inscriptions of the second (Boner) and third (Mahaban) classes. But from the majority of the characters and the general appearance of the writing it is evident that none of the stones can be specially connected with either of these

<sup>3 &</sup>quot;District Peshawar"; scale 1 inch to 4 miles; photozincographed at the Survey of India Offices, Calcutta, 1884. This map shows the "independent" territory immediately to the north of the Peshawar District with more detail than the corresponding sheet of the Atlas of India or other maps at present accessible to the public. As the topography of the hill tracts beyond the border is (apart from peaks fixed trigonometrically) not shown on the basis of any regular survey, the geographical positions indicated above for localities in that territory cannot be accurate. They are intended merely to facilitate identification on the map named.

classes. The same remark applies to No. 20, the "Sheikh's baking stone" which is the largest specimen of this type of writing and also exhibits a closer approach to regular lines.

Regarding No. 2, the only piece showing the characters of the Spankharra type, which was not actually obtained from that locality, Major Deane believes that it may have been carried to Banda Khalil (a small hamlet south of Hoti-Mardan in Yusufzai) by a Tālib, it having been a Tālib from whom he got it.

The second type which M. Senart designated as that of *Boner*, was represented in his collection by four inscriptions all found near the village of *Bichounai* on the southern slopes of Mount Ilm, which divides Boner and Swat. M. Senart has already called attention, *l. c.*, p. 17, to the relatively large number of complicated and elaborate characters found in this group. This peculiarity induced him to separate it from the third, notwithstanding the common occurrence of certain simpler signs in both of them.

That this distinction was justified, is now shown by the new inscriptions gathered from the same region, Nos. 24-33. They all show a great variety of signs of a peculiarly elaborate type, either identical with or similar to the characters found on the Bichounai inscriptions.

As the find-spots of the new inscriptions are situated with one exception within the territory known as Boner, the designation given to this group by M. Senart has proved singularly felicitous. At the same time we can see from a glance at the map that the localities which have furnished these inscriptions, are spread over a considerable tract of country.

Nos. 24 and 25 come from *Elai* situated in the central part of Boner, circ. 72° 28′ E. Long., 34° 32′ N. Lat. No. 26 is a somewhat indistinct impression of a stone found near *Miangam*, a village on Ilm and hence probably not far from Bichounai. *Ilm* itself is shown on the 'Atlas of India' Sheet No. 14, as the name of the mountain range whose highest point is Peak No. 81 (9,341 feet) as marked by the Trigonometrical Survey. *Torsak*, where the original of No. 27 is said to be walled into a house, is a place about 3 miles due west of *Elai*.

Ilm-o-Mianz, where Nos. 29 and 30 come from, is a village which according to Major Deane's information is situated somewhere on the southern slopes of Mount Ilm and near to Bichounai and Padshah. From the latter place was obtained the impression No. 28b. Still further to the north lies apparently Chargam, in Puran, which has furnished the interesting inscriptions Nos. 32-34.

To the south we are taken again by the small inscription No. 28 which was picked up in the Malandri Valley leading up from Rustam

and Surkhabi to the Malandri Pass, circ. 72°26' E. long., 34° 24' N. Lat. Finally we have in No. 31, a small stone recently found at *Shahbazgarhi* far to the south of the Boner hills.

Some significance may, perhaps, be attached to the fact that this group of inscriptions which seems topographically to extend over the widest area, is also the one in which varieties of the same system of writing can be most readily distinguished.

In their clearest and sharpest form the characters appear in the four inscriptions from Bichounai (M. Senart's Nos. 2-5) which look as if engraved by the same mason or after an identical pattern. Closest to them range in this respect our Nos. 26-27 from Tangi and Torsak, though here the characters bear a slightly more rounded form. Similar in type are also Nos. 24-25 from Elai, but the execution is far less careful. Both these little inscriptions are cut into rough stones of small size which do not appear to have ever belonged to a building or other structure.

With a peculiarly cursive yet clear enough form of these characters we meet on the three inscriptions from *Chargam*, Nos. 32-34, which, as Major Deane's note seems to show, were originally fastened together. No. 34 contains only a few stray signs which, however, can be traced also in the far more regular lines of the other two inscriptions.

Nos. 28 and 31 from Malandri and Shahbazgarhi, respectively, are too small to show any striking peculiarity of their own. Such, however, is amply displayed by the large-sized characters of No. 29 from Ilm-o-Mianz. I should have hesitated to class this inscription with the Boner group, were it not that on closer examination the peculiarity of these characters appears to be due more to a kind of ornamentation with hooks and flourishes than to any real difference of type. The fragment No. 30 from the same locality can certainly not be separated from this group, the shape of the few signs approaching closely to some found on No. 24.

With the Boner group too, I have thought it best to arrange Nos. 35 and 36 which come both from valleys lying to the north of the Mahaban range and opening into Boner proper. No. 35 found near Surah, circ. 72° 36′ E. Long., 34° 24′ N. Lat., shows a few characters resembling the Boner type, arranged in a circle amidst what are evidently symbols. A similar arrangement is exhibited by M. Senart's No. 4 from Bichounai.

No. 36 which comes from Shera, a locality of uncertain position in Amazai territory, is a small loose stone showing on both sides scrawls which may be compared with a few signs occurring on No. 30 and elsewhere.

I cannot conclude this brief notice of the inscriptions of the Boner group without pointing out that this is the only one in which inscriptions of an approximately monumental look have yet been met with. The inscriptions of the first or Spankharra group are scarcely more than Sgraffitti on small stones which show no mark of having been specially prepared for bearing records. The inscriptions of the third group to be noticed next are also without exception engraved on stones of comparatively small size which, whether found detached or fitted into walls, are equally irregular in their shape. Against this, we find in the Boner group several inscriptions of greater size, like M. Senart's No. 5 and our Nos. 27, 29, 30 which are engraved in regular lines and evidently with far more care and routine than those referred to.

The new inscriptions of the third or Mahaban group, Nos. 37-41, come almost all from the identical localities from which M. Senart's specimens were procured. Asgram lies at the end of a spur which runs down from Mount Mahaban to the south, at a point circ. 72° 45′ E. Long., 34° 7′ N. Lat. Palosdarra according to Major Deane's note seems to be situated about 72° 35′ E. Long., 34° 9′ N. Lat. close to the village Boka marked on the map near the Border towards Khudukhel territory. Suludheri seems to be about 3 to 4 miles to the north of Boka. The Khudukhel territory begins immediately to the west and north of Suludheri. Sarpatti is the name of a spur running to the north-west of Mahaban; its highest point is marked on the map at 72° 40′ E. Long., 34° 21′ N. Lat.

Whereas the find-spots of all the other inscriptions of this group are closely gathered round the spurs of Mount Mahaban, No. 46 which comes from Kaldarra near Dargai takes us far away to the west into the vicinity of the Malakand Pass.

Regarding the characters which appear on these stones in such bewildering variety I have nothing to add to M. Senart's remarks, p. 21 sqq. No. 41 is of some interest as a socket cut into the stone, evidently with the intention of fitting it to another, makes it probable that the original position of the stone was the one shown in the plate. At the same time it appears that the inscription was engraved after the stone had been fitted in the above manner, as none of the characters falling near the cut edges seem to be mutilated. If a conclusion can be drawn from the fact that in the three outer lines which follow the rounded contour of the stone, the terminal signs below are cut up to the very edge of the socket, a direction of the writing from right to left would appear probable.

Perhaps the most curious of the new inscriptions in unknown characters are the five stones Nos. 47-51, which come from Zangi Khan

Banda and Khrappa in Boner. The characters which they exhibit, differ so strikingly in form and arrangement from those found on any of the inscriptions hitherto mentioned, that I cannot hesitate to recognize in them a fourth independent type. As both Zangi Khan Banda and Khrappa fall within the tract occupied by the clan of the Nurizai, I should suggest provisionally for these inscriptions the name of Nurizai group. The first named locality from which four of the stones have been obtained, lies according to the map close to the range of the hills which forms the southern boundary of Boner towards British territory, circ. 72° 25′ E. Long., 34° 26′ N. Lat. Khrappa is marked as Krapa on the map, some 7 miles in a direct line to the north-west of Zangi Khan Banda and not far from Elai.

The inscriptions of the new group are already outwardly distinguished from the rest by the peculiar shape of the stones on which they are engraved. These are all longish pieces of a slatey material which as the dowel on No. 47 and the socket on No. 48 show, were evidently intended to be placed upright, i.e. with one of the narrower sides topmost. Another distinguishing feature is the engraved frame of straight lines which encloses all inscriptions except No. 49. On the reverse of No. 51 and in part of No. 47 the characters are actually attached to these lines.

The characters themselves which seem to consist of a series of curves, angles and simple strokes either separate or combined, do not show (except perhaps in part of No. 47), any approach to a linear arrangement such as we have found in the inscriptions of the other groups. If the information recorded regarding Nos. 48-50 is correct in describing their find-spots as a buried Stūpa, we could have little doubt as to the votive character of these small monuments which is suggested already by their shape.

The only reason for grouping together in the list and plates the series of impressions shown in Nos. 52-60, is that the stones from which they were taken are all situated in Swat territory or in its immediate vicinity. Leaving aside Nos. 55-60 in which some marks are perhaps mere symbols, we find that the characters of the other three inscriptions differ markedly from those found in the four groups above described, without yet showing any distinct affinity amongst themselves. No. 52 comes, perhaps, nearest to the type of the Mahaban group, but exhibits yet peculiarities which make it inadvisable for the present to range it under that head. In No. 53 again, which like the last-named inscription is engraved on a rock near Odigram (some ten miles north-east of Thana on the Swat river), we have characters of a peculiar rounded shape which bear no resemblance whatever to those of the third group.

No. 54 comes from the vicinity of Ghorband which is described by Major Deane as a "range of hills running parallel with the Indus for a short distance and northward or possibly a little N. W. from the Ilm and Dossira mountains." A few of the simple characters shown by this inscription occur also in the Mahaban group. Others, however, in particular the compounded (?) signs in the first two lines which are attached to horizontal strokes, I have not been able to trace in the large number of inscriptions we already possess of that type.

Until a larger number of inscriptions is obtained from that region, it must be left undecided whether we have in Nos. 52-54 fresh types of writing or only marked local variations of one or the other known group, such as M. Senart has very appropriately suggested (p. 18 note) in the case of Nos. 25 and 26 of his series.

The impressions reproduced in Nos. 55-60 exhibit a series of large Sgraffitti which are found engraved on rocks situated close together at a point on the upper course of the Swat river. Most frequent among them are signs which seem nothing but variations of the Triçūla symbol. In the largest of these 'inscriptions' No. 55, and also in No. 56 there appear a few signs which faintly resemble Devanāgarī or Çāradā letters. On the whole, however, it is improbable that we have in these detached markings anything more than emblematic signs or possibly ideograms of an unknown system.<sup>4</sup>

Large as the number of inscriptions is, which has rewarded Major Deane's search during the last two years, we look yet in vain among them for one which would furnish a clue to the puzzling characters they display in so bewildering variety. The new inscriptions exhibit as little as those contained in M. Senart's publication any well-defined groups of characters which by their repeated occurrence in particular positions might allow of some conclusion as to their significance or the character of their language.

There are not wanting in the new inscriptions stray signs which show a curious resemblance to the characters of one or the other known alphabets. But after what M. Senart and Prof. Bühler have said on this point, it is scarcely necessary to emphasize how hazardous it would be to take the mere resemblance of a few characters, unsupported by other evidence, as the basis for further speculations.

In view of these circumstances it appeared as if we should have to wait with resignation for the discovery of a bilingual stone or some other lucky accident of this kind, before we could approach even the preliminary question of the origin and date of these puzzling monu-

<sup>4 [</sup>For further information regarding the position of these rock-carvings and the manner of their reproduction compare the "Supplementary Notes," p. 17 below.]

ments. All the more gratified we must feel at the recent discovery of a document which has thrown unexpected light on an obscure period of the history of Gandhāra and the neighbouring regions, and which also seems to show us the direction where the means for the future solution of the riddle may have to be sought for.

I refer to the Itinerary of the Chinese pilgrim Ou-K'ong, of which Professors Lévi and Chavannes have published a translation, accompanied by very valuable notes, in the Journal asiatique, for September-October, 1895. From Ou-K'ong's account we learn that the territories of Udyāna and Gandhāra from which our inscriptions come, were during the pilgrim's sojourn there, A.D. 753–759, 763-764, united under the rule of a dynasty which claimed descent from Kaniṣka and was zealously attached to the Buddhist faith. Messrs. Lévi and Chavannes rightly recognize in these rulers Albērūnī's 'Shāhiyas of Kābul,' 'Turks who were said to be of Tibetan origin.' From the names given to members of this royal family both in Ou-K'ong's Itinerary and the T'ang Annals the Editors conclude with great probability, that these princes belonged actually to a dynasty of Turkish nationality and language.

The interesting historical fact thus established fully justifies the Editors in attaching importance to the curious similarity which M. Senart and Prof. Bühler had already noticed between certain characters in Major Deane's inscriptions and the alphabet of the Turkish inscriptions from the banks of the Orkhon deciphered by Prof. V. Thomsen in 1893.7 This resemblance deserves all the more attention in view of the fact that the date of these Turkish inscriptions (first

It must be noted that the titles t'e-le and t'e-k'in-li which are most characteristically Turkish, are given in Ou-K'ong's narrative not as those of princes belonging to the ruling family of K'ien-t'o-lo (Gandhāra), but as designations of 'sons of the king of the Tou-kine or Turks;' see l. c., pp. 354, 357. Though mentioned as founders of Vihāras, both in Kaçmīr and Gandhāra, these princes need not have actually resided in either of these countries. Sufficient evidence, however, remains for the above assumption in the name of Ou-san Te-le-li, mentioned as king of Ki-pin in the Chinese Annals, A.D. 739; in the word houli which is found in the names of several Vihāras visited by Ou-K'ong in Gandhāra, and which seems to be a Turkish term, and finally in the name of the ambassador Sa-po-ta-kan whom the ruler of Gandhāra sent to the Chinese court in Ou-K'ong's time.

<sup>7</sup> According to Prof. Bühler's observation, 'On the origin of the Brāhmī Alphabet,' 1895, p. 89, the alphabets of the Orkhon and Yenissei inscriptions show more than a dozen of the signs found in Major Deane's inscriptions.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> See Albērūnī's *India*, translated by Prof. Sachau, ii., pp. 10 sqq. Compare regarding this dynasty my paper *Zur Geschichte der Qāhis von Kābul* in 'Festgruss an Rudolf von Roth,' 1893, pp. 195 sqq.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> See Journal asiatique, 1895, vi., p. 378 sq.

half of the 8th century), as already noted by Messis. Levi and Chavannes, falls close to the time of Ou-K'ong's residence in the monasteries of Gandhāra and Udyāna.

These coincidences have led the Editors of Ou-K'ong's Itinerary to suggest a Turkish origin for our inscriptions. They are certainly striking enough to make it most desirable that the unknown characters of the latter should be fully analysed and compared with the Orkhon texts by a competent Turkish scholar. Unable to undertake even the preliminary steps for such a task, I must content myself here with showing that the conclusions drawn by Messrs. Lévi and Chavannes from Ou-K'ong as to the existence of a Turkish dominion in Gandhara, are well supported also by what Hiuen Tsiang had recorded of those regions more than a century earlier.

From Ou-K'ong's reference to Gandhara as the site of 'the eastern capital of Ki-pin' (p. 349), it is certain that in his time as in that of the earlier Chinese pilgrim, Gandhara was under the same rule as the Upper Valley of the Kābul River.8 Hiuen Tsiang tells us distinctly (Si-yu-ki, transl. Beal, i., p. 98) that the Gandhara of his time 'was governed by deputies from Kia-pi-shi.' Accordingly we find that when the pilgrim on his return-journey crossed the Indus near Udabhānda, the old capital of Gandhāra at the site of the present Und, he was received there by the king of Kia-pi-shi; compare Life of Hiuen Tsiang, translated by Beal, p. 192.

Kia-pi-shi or Kapiça is undoubtedly the  $Ka\pi i\sigma a$  of Ptolemy and identical with the hill-region between Kābul and the southern foot of the Hindukush. In describing its inhabitants Hiuen Tsiang tells us that 'their literature is like that of the Tukhāra (Tu-ho-lo) country, but the customs, common language and rules of behaviour are somewhat different' (Si-yu-ki, i., p. 54).

Retracing then our steps in the pilgrim's narrative to the country of the Tu-ho-lo, i.e., Tukhāristan on the Upper Oxus, we find the numerous petty states constituting it described as all dependent on the Tuh-kiue tribes, i.e., the Turks (see Si-yu-ki, i., p. 37 sq.). The language of the inhabitants is said to "differ somewhat from that of other countries. The number of radical letters in their language is twentyfive; by combining these, they express all objects around them. writing is across the page, and they read from left to right. literary records have increased gradually.".

<sup>8</sup> From the Chinese notices regarding Ki-pin, lucidly set forth by Messrs. LÉVA and Chavannes, l.c., pp. 371 sqq., it appears that Ki-pin as a geographical term in Chinese texts has had a varying employ at different periods. On the whole, however, preponderating evidence points to Ki-pin having been originally the designation of the Upper Kābul Valley.

Meagre as these details are they show yet clearly that in searching for the national and literary affinities of the race which held the rule of Kia-pi-shi and Gandhāra in Hiuen Tsiang's time, we have to look to the Turkish tribes in the north and not in the direction of India. A century later Udyāna too had passed under the same dominion. Whereas Hiuen Tsiang speaks yet of independent kings in Udyāna (U-chang-na, Si-yu-ki, i., p. 121), we see from a passage of the T'ang Annals (L'Itinéraire d'Ou-K'ong, p. 349 note) that A.D. 745 this territory was already united with Gandhāra and Kia-pi-shi under the same rule. In that year P'o-p'o, king of Ki-pin, is said to have received the imperial authority for assuming the title of 'King of Ki-pin and Ou-chang.'

This historical fact would allow us to account for the occurrence of Turkish inscriptions in regions like Swat and Boner which undoubtedly belonged to Udyāna, notwithstanding the record which Hiuen Tsiang has left us as to the connection of the language and writing of Udyāna with that of India.<sup>9</sup>

The publications of the Danish Academy and the Finno-Ugrian Society, containing the Orkhon inscriptions, are to my regret not accessible to me at present. I am, therefore, unable to ascertain with which of the several types of writing distinguished above their characters show most affinity.

Perhaps, a comparison of the Orkhon inscriptions will also throw some light on the relation of these types amongst each other. The first three as well as the fifth have undoubtedly numerous simple characters in common and might represent modifications of one and the same system of writing adapted to different languages or dialects. It is, however, evident that other explanations are also possible, and that all conjectures on the subject must for the present remain extremely hazardous.

Camp, Kashmir: 19th September, 1896.

9 "Their language though different in some points, yet greatly resembles that of India. Their written characters and their rules of etiquette are also of a mixed character as before." See Si-yu-ki, i. p., 120.

The local names of Swat and Boner, as far as shown on the map, with their frequent terminations in- $gr\tilde{a}m$  and  $k\tilde{o}t$ , seem to support the belief that these regions were at a time preceding the Pathan conquest inhabited by a population which in its great mass spoke an Indian language. This circumstance, however, could well be reconciled with a prolonged dominion over those territories of Turkish masters or even their temporary occupation by a Turkish-speaking population.

Without going for analogies to Europe where, e.g., the Balkan Peninsula would furnish them in plenty, we may refer to the local nomenclature of the Upper Derajāt along the right Indus bank and to that of Yusufzai-Gandhāra itself. This has preserved its Indian character notwithstanding the fact that the great mass of the population in these tracts has for centuries back been speaking Pusthu.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES.

More than a year has passed between the time when this paper was first sent to the press, and the date of its publication. This long delay has been due solely to the difficulty first experienced in providing for the adequate reproduction of the inscriptions. On reference to the only Indian establishment capable of undertaking such work it was found that the required plates could not be prepared there except at a cost which would have considerably exceeded the funds available for this purpose. Even then it seemed doubtful whether the process to be employed would secure satisfactory reproductions of those impressions on paper or cloth which were faint in color or otherwise difficult to reproduce mechanically.

In view of these circumstances, it was particularly gratifying that Mr. W. Griggs, of Peckham, London, whose photographic and chromolithographic works have already on many occasions served the interests of Indian archæological and epigraphical research, kindly offered to undertake the task on terms acceptable to the Society's Council. A visit paid to England during the last summer enabled me to watch personally the preparation of the plates. I was thus in a position to appreciate more thoroughly the exceptional care and attention which Mr. Griggs has bestowed on the work. The difficulties resulting from the deficient nature of part of the available materials could not have been overcome so successfully without Mr. Griggs' personal efforts, and for these my special thanks are due to him.

For the technical defects in many of the available impressions it is easy to account in the light of the explanations with which Major Deane has favoured me on a subsequent occasion. The persons through whose hands almost all these impressions have been obtained were wandering Pathān Mullās and Tālibs. Individuals of this class, being aware of Major Deane's interest in epigraphical remains, had for some time back been in the habit of bringing to him any inscribed stones which they came across and could conveniently carry along. Some of them on their wanderings across the border had seen similar stones which either on account of their size or for other reasons could not easily be removed.

Fanaticism among transfrontier tribes, like those of Boner and the Utman Khel, is still strong enough to make the open removal of inscribed stones which may be suspected to be of a 'Kāfir' origin and to give

eventually information as to hidden treasures, etc., a business of considerable risk even for such people. Major Deane, therefore, thought it best to initiate his occasional visitors into the art of taking impressions on paper or cloth and to provide them with the necessary materials in order to secure through them impressions of stones not otherwise obtainable. Some of them incited by the hope of a small remuneration have actually carried out Major Deane's wishes, and the impressions now published (together with a considerable number of others subsequently received) represent the result of their efforts.

It would in no case be reasonable to expect from agents of this peculiar type such work as we are accustomed to from trained assistants of archæogical surveyors in other parts of India. But indeed the awkward conditions under which generally these impressions have to be secured, would render the taking of really good impressions impossible even if Mullas and Talibs could be got to learn systematically all the In order to avoid detection and the consequent niceties of the art. risks, Major Deane's agents have been obliged to take their impressions in the manner which is easiest and quickest. The orthodox method of taking an impression from the stone by means of wetted paper and with the use of brush and ink, would no doubt have given far better results. Yet by following this lengthy process the operator might more than once have exposed himself to the chance of being shot at by a suspicious tribesman while he watched his paper drying. In two or three cases Major Deane's agents have in fact been fired at even while using the quicker process.

It is therefore scarcely surprising to find that Major Deane's agents have in most cases contented themselves with a simpler if less effective process. After roughly inking the raised surface of the stone a piece of cloth or paper was pressed against it. On this the inscribed parts ought to appear in white. In some instances (see, e.g., Nos. 27, 33) very fair impressions were thus obtained. In others, however, the evident hurry with which the stone was inked or the cloth (paper) removed, has led to the impression becoming blurred and accordingly very difficult to reproduce (see, e.g., Nos. 30, 32). In those few cases where the operator tried to obtain a sunk paper-impression by the use of a brush (see Nos. 29, 35) his achievement has scarcely been more satisfactory.

A short visit which I had the good fortune to pay to the Lower Swat Valley last Christmas under Major Deane's auspices, enabled me to examine personally the rock-carved inscriptions reproduced in Nos. 55-60 of Plate VII. These were the only ones among the inscriptions here published from impressions which were then accessible for inspection. I found the two rocks exhibiting them exactly in the posi-

tion indicated by the remarks quoted above, p. 6. They lie side by side at the foot of a hill-spur which runs down to the right bank of the Swat river, about three miles above Fort Chakdarra and quite close to the little hamlet of <u>Khushmaqām</u>. Between them and the precipitous river bank passes the road to Shamozai territory and Upper Swat, undoubtedly an important route of communication since ancient times. The face of both rocks is naturally smooth and thus seems to offer itself as a convenient place of record.

The large marks which appear on them bear distinctly the character of Sgraffitti. They are cut only to a very slight depth in the hard rock, and form small detached groups spreading irregularly over the surface. Some of these little groups are now almost completely effaced. The careless execution of the marks makes it impossible to obtain an impression of them by any ordinary mechanical process. The attempt I made to photograph them, also failed, partly owing to the faint appearance of the outlines and partly on account of the glare reflected from the rock. For the purpose of the present publication I was, therefore, obliged to fall back upon the impressions which Major Deane had originally communicated to me.

For these we are indebted to Surgeon-Captain Dr. D. W. SUTHER-LAND, who while stationed at Chakdarra in charge of the Swat Civil Hospital 1895-97, had devoted a great deal of attention to the antiquities of the neighbourhood. Dr. SUTHERLAND, finding it impracticable to secure an impression in any other fashion, had carefully inked by hand the whole surface around what appeared to him engraved marks, and had taken his cloth impressions from the thus prepared surface. As he had carried out this process with great care and skill, the impressions of the several groups of Sgraffitti prepared by him can be accepted as very accurate eye-copies of what can still be distinguished with any certainty. On Plate VII. I have shown the groups Nos. 55-57 approximately in the relative positions which they occupy on the rock to the right. The Sgraffitti visible on the left rock are reproduced in the same way in Nos. 58-60.

During the time which has passed since the above paper was written, Major Deane has continued with equal zeal and success the collection of epigraphical remains from the interesting regions which lie within the sphere of his influence. The number of inscriptions in unknown characters since secured by him, including those obtained during the recent expedition to Upper Swat, has gradually risen to above fifty. Among them is one coming from Boner which owing to the large num-

ber of characters it contains is likely to prove important for the eventual decipherment of these puzzling documents. Major Deane's efforts have, however, not yet succeeded in bringing to light a single 'bilinguis,' and in the absence of such a guide the first step in that direction remains as difficult as before. The preparation of Plates showing Major Deane's recent acquisitions has already being taken in hand by Mr. Griggs, and with the help of the Asiatic Society I hope to publish soon the whole of these new finds in a Second's Series.

In conclusion I may be allowed to state that I have discussed the questions concerning the Turkish dominion in Gandhāra and Udyāna more fully in a paper recently read before the Royal Hungarian Academy of Sciences, Budapest <sup>10</sup>. This I hope to make soon more accessible by an English translation.

Lahore: 5th November, 1897.

10 "A fehér Hunok és rokon törzsek indiai szerepléséröl (White Huns and kindred tribes in Indian history"); see Budapesti Szemle, August, 1897.

A Note on the Antiquity of Chittagong, compiled from the Tibetan works

Pagsam Jon-Zań of Sumpa Khan-po and Kāhbab Dun-dan of Lama

Tārā Nātha.—By Sarat Chandra Das, C.I.E., Rai Bahādur.

#### [Read February, 1897.]

About the close of the 6th century A.D. when Çrī Harṣa reigned in Kaçmīr, in the north, the brother of king Prabhāsa, named Çākyabala, brought under his sway the country between Haridvāra and Kaçmīr. He accepted as his spiritual teacher Ācārya Vasumitra, the author of the commentary of the Mahākōça and also of the works on the religious theories of the eighteen sects of the early Buddhists. In the south Dēva Çrama, a pupil of Dharma Rakṣita, who had written the Mūla Prajñā Tīkā, gained the victory in a disputation with some Tīrthika (Brāhmaṇa) Pandits, and succeeded in converting king Sālavāhana to Buddhism. Afterwards in the reign of the fifth Simha, the Tīrthika teacher called Dattatri appeared. Shortly afterwards the Brāhmaṇa Pandits, called Kumāra-līla and Kaṇāda, defeated the pupils of the Buddhist sage Din-nāga and others. When Çamkar-ācārya, who, it is said, could see

Then the Pāla dynasty of the solar race (Sūryavamça) consisting of fourteen kings came in succession. At that time in Kaçmīr there ruled Çrī Harṣa Dēva.

2 (२०८१ वे १२११) इराष्ट्री अष्ट्रे अष्ट्री अष्ट्री अष्ट्रे अष्ट्री अष्ट्री अष्ट्रे अष्ट्री अष्ट्री अष्ट्रे अष्ट्रे अष्ट्री अष्ट्रे अ

(Pagsam Jon-Zan, 105.)

the god Mahādēva whenever he wished, came to Bengal, the elderly Buddhist Bhiksus wished to call the demigods who guarded Buddhism in other lands to their aid, but the youthful Buddhist Pandits, not listening to their advice, held religious controversy with Camkara and were defeated.3 They lost twenty-five endowed religious institutions together with their furniture and other properties; and 500 Buddhist Upāsakas were converted to the creed of the Tirthikas (Brāhmaņas). When Çamkar-ācārya sent his letter of challenge to Nālanda to hold a religious disputation with him, Dharma Kīrtti 4 was brought from the Dekhan by king Prabhāsa. In the great controversy which was held at Benares between the Brāhmanas and the Buddhists in which the king presided, Pandit Dharma Kirtti gained the victory. All the people interested in the controversy became converted to Buddhism. king, having been converted, established a large number of Buddhist Though defeated, Çamkara did not embrace Buddhism. institutions. After his death which occurred by drowning himself in the Ganges, his followers were mostly converted to Buddhism.

In Ōṭivisa (Orissa) Çamkara's disciple, a Brāhman named Bhaṭṭācārya, became powerful. He defeated the Buddhist Pandit Kuliça Çrēṣṭha and others in disputation, with the result that the Buddhist temples were destroyed by the Tīrthikas, and their endowed properties appropriated to the use of the latter. In the east Vimala Candra, son of Bāla Candra, had established his power over

³ देथैरकैं तृ 'य्वन'इर'ष्ट्रेर' छै' भै' गर्रा ख्रा ठाठ भर सेंद्र 'या छ्त्र 'य्यव ' य्येन यह पर कें 'यू दिन भर कें 'यू दे प्रिक्त ' कर्मा श्रुका इदर्म 'में 'कृष्य पे ' रम' व्यम्पया है से 'यू राज सेर 'छै' कद दिद 'यू व्या वे 'या क्रम या क्रम या क्रम या क्रम या यु व्या या विकास मा

(Pagsam Jon-Zań, 106.)

4 ธัง'อุคง'รุธ'นั้ร อิ'สูม'นั้รง'มฤม'ลับ'ั । (Pagsam Jon-Zan, 107.)

Dharma Kirtti and Gam-po king of Tibet were said to be of the same time.

Gam-po married the daughter of Emperor Thai Jung of China, who according

to Chinese chronology reigned in 600 A.D.

(Pagsam Jon-Zan, 107.)

Bāla Candra was the son of Simha Candra who reigned in Bengal. Bāla Candra extended his power to Tirhut and Kāmarūpa. At this time Magadha was ruled by the elder son of King Harsa.

the three great provinces, viz:—Tīrabhukti, Baŋgāla and Kāmarūpa. He patronized the  $M\bar{a}dhyamika$  philosophers, Çrī Gupta, the pupil of Supradatta and also the Ācāryas Ratna Kīrtti and Amara Siddha. King Vimala Candra had married a sister of king Bhartrhari, the last of the line of the Candras who ruled in Mālava, and had two sons, viz:—Lalita Candra and Gōpī Candra After king Bhartrhari had renounced the world in order to live the life of an ascetic, Lalita Candra succeeded him. King Vimala Candra was succeeded by Gōpī Candra, during whose reign the seat of Government was at Cāṭigrāma (modern Chittagong) in Eastern Beugal. In Cāṭigrāma there were in that early time many  $T\bar{v}rthika$  temples and Buddhist Vihāras. The Buddhist of Cāṭigrāma belonged to the Tāntrik Mahāyāna school. To the south of Cāṭigrāma was the kingdom of Rakhan or Arakhan. In Cāṭigrāma there was Jālandhara, in which flames of fire appeared mixed up with water.

The Buddhist Siddha Bālapāda was born at Nagara Thata in Sindu, in the family of a rich Çūdra merchant. He became a Buddhist and studied a large number of Buddhist works under eminent Buddhist sages. Then entering the holy order of Bhiksus, he visited Udyana (modern Swat and Chitral) and there practised yōga. From there he proceeded to Jālandhara (a place somewhere between Kaçmīr and Nēpāl), where appeared flames of fire in the midst of water and stone. For his long residence there he was called the Saint of Jālandhara. He visited Nēpāl and there causing the chief Linga of Civa to be split by the efficacy of his charms, converted the Nepalese to Tantrik Buddhism. From Nepal he proceeded to the city of Avanti in Mālava. At this time Bhartrhari, a member of the old royal family of Mālava, had succeeded to the throne on the death of Viṣṇu Rāja. Bālapāda converted a large number of people at Avanti to Buddhism by performing miracles. Once several thousand goats were being sacrificed by the Brāhmans before some deity. Suddenly by his charms he changed them into so many wolves. This frightened the people who, imbibing faith in Buddha, desisted from animal sacrifice. He initiated a man of the weaver-caste, aged 99 years, in the mystic cult of Tantrik Buddhism and admitted a young Brāhman to the holy order, who afterwards became an adept in mysticism and was called Kriṣṇ-ācārya (the performer of black magic). Lastly, once while he was seated in deep meditation at the foot of a tree in a grove outside the city of Avanti, some robbers came and sat round him. At night they committed robbery in the city and obtained good many precious things. Thinking that good luck had attended them on account of their having seen the sage, they made him large presents of pearl rosaries and other precious things which weighed several hundred ounces. When they had gone away, the people saw in

his possession the stolen goods, and so they took him to the king, who sentenced him to be impaled. The sage was fixed to the stake, and there he remained still and motionless as in yoga. When necessary, he used to get away to make ablution in the river, and then again quietly resumed his seat on the stake. On the seventh day of his impalement the king came to inspect the scene. Seeing that the sage sat unhurt on the stake, he became unhappy for the wrong he had done to one who was guiltless and holy. He became a devout follower of Bālapāda, who was so called on account of his child-like simplicity of character.<sup>6</sup> From Mālava the sage proceeded to the kingdom of Bengal which was ruled by Gōpī Candra,<sup>7</sup> a son of king Vimala Candra. Gōpī Candra was young when he became king. Being a handsome person, he was very coquettish in his manners. He often used to behold his beautiful face in the mirror. The sage Bālapāda visited Jālandhara (probably the modern Sītākuṇḍa), where flames of fire were seen in the midst of water and stone. Coming to the city of Cātigrāma, he entered the king's orchard and sat meanly attired in meditation at the foot of some trees. It is said that when he felt thirsty, he summoned the cocoa-nuts that were on the tree to come to his lips. They came and, pouring into his mouth their watery contents, returned at his bidding to their respective The mother of the king observed this curious phenomenon with wonder, and knowing that the sage who looked mean like a Hādi (sweeper of roads) was a Siddha, she asked her royal son to call the sage to his presence to get some charms by which he might gain longevity. sage whispered a mantra into the king's ears, and at the same time asked him to put his hand in an empty earthen pot. "Do you perceive anything in it?" asked the sage. "No, nothing" was the reply.

(Pagsam Jon-Zan, 108.)

শ্রুম'দ্বি'দ্বেম'দির শ্রুম'দির শ্রুমান্ত্র নির্মান্তর হৈ প্রমান্তর (Kāhbab Dun-dan, 30.)

7 প্রাম্বান্ত্র বিশ্বি শ্রুমান্ত্র বিশ্বি শ্রুমান্তর হৈ প্রমান্তর (Pagsam Jon-Zań, 109.)

यूदावायि र्टेन्स्य अप्ते प्राप्त । प्राप्त प्राप्त विवास प्रिया विवास विवास

Thrice the same interrogation was made, to which the same reply was given. Then "that tattva, i.e., the perception of nothingness, is the way to immortality," said the sage. The king did not perceive the truth, and suspecting the sage to be an imposter, ordered him to be buried alive. A pit was dug in the ground, into which the sage was placed. The ground was then covered with the dung of elephants and horses. It was then fenced with thorny trees, so that nobody could take him out. Twelve years after this event his pupil Kṛṣṇ-ācārya, when proceeding to the place called Kadalī Kṣētra, visited Cāṭigrāma. His two pupils Badala and Mahila at his instance shewed some miracles to the king, and impressed him with the extreme holiness of their teacher. Being likewise asked for the secrets of immortality by Göpī Candra, Kṛṣṇ-ācārya whispered into his ears the same mantra which was given him by Bālapāda. remembering it, said he had heard the same thing once before, and told Kṛṣṇ-ācārya informed the monarch that nobody the same story. else knew the mantra except his own Guru, i.e., Bālapāda, the sage of Jalandhara whom he had buried alive. The king became penitent and They both went over the grave and exhumed the greatly frightened. sage. Being in a state of suspended animation in  $y\bar{o}ga$ , he was alive. He complained of extreme hunger and thirst, having had no food or drink for twelve years. When brought out, he rested his two arms on the heads of Kṛṣṇ-ācārya's pupils, named Dhama and Dhuma, and took some food. The king prayed for forgiveness, which was granted to him on condition that he renounced the world and adopted the life of After staying for six months in Cātigrāma in a cavern in the hills, he proceeded to Rāmēçvar-ārāma in the south of India.

Cāṭigrāma was an imporṭant city of Bengal in that early period. The country to the south of Tripura and north of Rakhan (Arakan) was Ramma (Sanskrit ramya), the land of the picturesque sceneries. It was the headquarters of Buddhism after the decline of Nālanda. In the city of Cāṭigrāma or Cāṭigāō there was a large Buddhist monastery called Paṇḍita-Vihāra. There the Buddhist Pandits used to hold religious controversies with the Tīrthikas (Brāhmaṇas.) Once when a disputation took place, the leader of the Buddhists, at the suggestion of an old woman, wore a cap pointed like a thorn, at the time of the controversy. He came out victorious. To commemorate that

triumph, the Buddhists of Magadha kept up the use of the conical pointed cap. In Tibet it is called Pan-shva (pan 'Pandit' and shva in Tibetan 'a cap'), meaning 'the Pandit's cap.' The Lamas of Tibet, who belong to the Mahāyāna School of Magadha, use the pointed cap on al religious occasions. Marco Polo, the Venetian traveller, took a model of the Pan-shva from the grand Lama of Tibet who visited Peking at the invitation of the great Emperor Kublai Khān, and presented it to His Holiness the Pope.

About the middle of the 10th century the great Buddhist Tāntrik sage Tila-yōgī <sup>9</sup> was born in Cāṭigāō. The hierarch of Magadha, Naratōpa, visited Cāṭigrāma and took vows from Tila-yōgī. Marpa Lochava, the founder of the red hat school of Tibet, was a pupil of Naratōpa, and Milarapa, the renowned Siddha (saint) of Tibet, was Marpa's pupil.

In 1200 A.D. Pandit Çākya Çrībhadra of Kaçmīr visited the great monasteries of Ōḍantapurī and Vikramaçilā. He witnessed the destruction of those Vihāras by the Turuṣka (Muhammadan) army and the wholesale massacre of the monks. He fled to a place called Jagadhala in Ōṭivisa (Orissa), when further ravages were being done to Buddhism in Magadha by the Turuṣkas. Three years after, in 1203, he visited Tibet, and there introduced the system of initiative vow which is called Panchan Domgyun. Some of the Buddhist Pandits of Magadha fled towards Nēpāl, to the south-west and south, and also towards Arkhan 10 (Arakan), Muñad (Burmah), Kambōja (Cambodia) and other places. From the rise of the Sēna Dynasty to its downfall, when under the orders of Lawang Sēna (probably Lakṣmaṇa Sēna) some Buddhist Bhikṣus served as messengers, the country called Antara Vidēha was overrun by the Tīrthikas, Mlēcchas and the Turuṣkas.

About this time some foolish Yōgīs, who were followers of the Bud dhist Yōgī Gau-rakṣa, became Çivaite Samnyāsīs. There remained only

<sup>9</sup> หิ้นรุนัส หิ ขิ นาสิ । คะ หิ้คพ र्ट र्स म र्यो คัพ ย นณ์ भेद छि । उ प्रमा से त्रे. โคพ ซ หู้พ หิ । (Kāhbab Dun-dan, 33.)

(Pagsam Jon-Zan, 112.

a few Buddhists at Natasva. After that time the Rājas of the Sēna family became vassals of the Turuska kings. They acted according to the commands of the Turuska kings. They respected the Bud-Particularly in the time of Buddha Sēna, Rāhula Crībhadra, Bhūmi Crībhadra, Upāya Crībhadra and others performed Buddhist religious service. They had a limited number of followers and devotees. There were at that time the Acaryas Karuna Çribhadra, and Munindra Cribhadra and others who also worked with a few fol-About a hundred years after the time of Pratīta Sēna, 11 Cagala Rāja, probably the most powerful king of Cāṭigāō, rose to eminence in His power was felt all over the country extending from He was devoted to Brāhmanism. His wife, being Bengal to Delhi. a Buddhist, induced him to repair some of the ruined Vihāras of Magadha and to perform religious service at Vajrāsana (Bōdhi Gayā) and Nalanda, and particularly to rebuild the upper storeys of the great nine storeyed Gandhola of Bodhi Gayā. He re-established the worship of Buddha there by inviting a learned Pandit like Çāriputra. the death of this Rāja (Cagala) up to this year (Earth-dragon year according to the chronology of Tibet) three hundred years have elapsed. Afterwards in Ōṭivisa (Orissa) Mukunda Dēva (Dharma Rāja), who favoured Buddhism, became powerful. His power extended up to Maga-He too did some service to the cause of Buddhism. death up to this time one hundred and seventy-eight years have passed.

Towards the East, Buddhism spread more and more than before. After the downfall of Magadha most of the learned sages went towards the land of the Kōkī. Since that time the Rājas Çōbhajāta, Simha-jaṭī and others established many Buddhist religious institutions in their dominions. The religion of Buddha having spread there, the Pandit Vana Ratna and others visited Tibet from there (Cāṭigāō). In later

times Rāja Babla Sundara sent a number of Pandits to the Siddha Çānti Gupta, when he was residing in the country of Khagēndra in Dekhan. They returned with a large number of Mantra works to Cāṭigāō. His four sons, Candra Vāhana, Atīta Vāhana, Bāla Vāhana, and Sundara hachi, patronized Buddhism. The first reigned in Rakhan (Arakan), the second ruled in the land of the Cakmas (Chittagong Hill Tracts), the third became the king of Muñad (Burmah), and the fourth ruled over Naṁgaṭa (the Hill Tracts of Assam, Kachar and Tripura). Babla Sundara, it seems, was the king of Tripura and Cāṭigrāma (Chittagong). 13

With respect to the 'Pandit's cap' (Panzva-rtse rin), mentioned above (page 25), the following information is available.

Dr. Waddell in his work on "The Buddhism of Tibet" has given a very interesting description of the Lamaist hats and cawls. "The majority of the hats, he writes, are of an Indian type, a few only being Chinese or Mongolian. The two most typical hats are believed by the Lamas to have been brought from India by the Buddhist Saint Padma Sambhana, the founder of Lamaism, and his coadjutor, Çānti Rakṣita, in the eighth century. And both of these hats are essentially of an Indian pattern. The red hat, of the great Pandits Panchen zva dmar is alleged

2 2दै'२५พ' कभ' भ' २ बुवा'२६२ प्रमा' २ थें 'ख्या म्हां भेंदा त्रेर । हुभ' ख' छों दि ' मैं ' भर कें भ' हुथ' ख' ग्रुक' द' दे ' श्वे ' ले भ' पा था ना दुर्ध ' पर ' द्रपद' प ' ले वा हुद ' कभ' प्रह्रक' पा खें इदत्रद' अकेंद्र' दे ' २६ ' २६ भ' कभ' द्रपर ' प्रमा शें प्रहें ' दह ' दे क' प्रहें दे ' भेंदा हैं।

(Pagsam Jon-Zań, 133.)

(Pagsam Jon-Zan, 124)

to have been brought from India the foundation of Lamaism. Its shape is essentially that of the ordinary cap used in the colder parts of India during the winter, with lappets coming over the cap and the nape of the neck, which lappets are folded up as an outer brim to the cap in the hot part of the day. Such a cap is often worn by Indian ascetics when travelling in the winter time. It is quite probable that this kind of cap was introduced either by Padma Sambhana, Çānti Rakṣita or Atiça (Dîpamkara) into Tibet from Magadha. From the account of the origin of the Pan-zva rtse rin (called in Waddell's list Panchen snerin) quoted from Pagsam Jon-zań, it appears that the Buddhist Yōgīs and Pandits used caps either during their residence in the monastery or at the time of travel. It is very probable that the cap originated in Udyāna, the country from which both Padma Sambhana and Bālapāda came. The latter or earlier Buddhist Pandits who visited Cātigrāma must have introduced the use of caps among the Buddhist Pandits who were called Mahantas. Pilgrims from Kaçmīr and the Panjab still visit Sītākuṇḍa which has been a holy place both to the Brāhmans and Buddhists from very early time. In describing Panchen snerin Dr. Waddell observes:-It is only worn with these longtails by the Dalai Lama and Panchen Lama, the Gahdan Khri-rinpo-chē, and the Tibetan Lama King or regent, during the assembly mass and empowering. Pan-zva rtse rin, 14 that is the Pandits cap with long or pointed top is generally made with the top point bent a little like a thorn of a rose, symbolical of penetration and piercing.

The name Paṇḍita Vihāra and the story of disputation with the Tīrthīkas (Brāhmaṇas) goes to show that Chittagong was place of learning sixteen centuries ago if not earlier still.

<sup>14</sup> Pan-zva rtse rin means the long pointed cap of the Pandits. Pan or Panchen, means great Pandits, zva cap, rtse 'point' (Skt. agra), and rin 'long.'

On the Kāçmīrī Noun.—By G. A. GRIERSON, C.I.E., PH.D., I.C.S. [Read December, 1897.]

#### A. Gender.

Kāçmīrī nouns are either masculine or feminine. There is no neuter gender in the language. In the case of pronouns, however, there is a relic of a neuter gender, each pronoun having three forms, one, for male living beings, another, for female living beings, and a third for things without life, whether their grammatical gender is masculine or feminine.

The sixth part of Içvara-kaula's Kaçmīraçabdāmṛta deals with gender. The following rules are abstracted from it.

The feminine gender is used for the following purposes (vi. 18.):-

(a.) To denote the female sex, e.g.

Masc.

Fem.

म्बंगुर् mŏŋyur<sup>u</sup>, a male kid

म्बंग्रू mŏŋgarā a female kid.

vatshu, a male calf

वहर  $watsh^ar$ , a female calf.

(b.) To denote smallness, e.g.

कतुर् katuru, a large potsherd

कत्रू katarā, a small potsherd.

(d.) To denote artificiality, e.g.

चाम् tsās, a cough

चार् <u>tsākhar</u>, an artificial cough, a "hem."

(e.) To denote similarity, e.g.

काय kothu, a load

। केट् kwa<u>ts</u>h<sup>ū</sup>, a bag.

ततुर् taturu, smarting (of a wound) तत्र tatara, the pain felt by an angry person.

(f.) To denote special meanings, e.g.

नद् naru, a sleeve

नेक् narū, an arm.

kharu, having a scald-head

बंह khara, the disease of scald-head.

1. Words signifying human castes or professions, form their feminines by adding vartar vart

Thus:—

az bata, a Brāhmaņ

बटबाय् baṭabāy, a wife of a Brāhmaņ.

दर् dar, name of a Brāhmaṇ caste

दरबाय्  $darab\bar{a}y$ , wife of a Dar.

कौल् kaul, name of a Brāhmaņ

कौलवाय्  $kaulab\bar{a}y$ , wife of a Kaul.

खनर sŏnar, a goldsmith

सन्दाय sŏnarbāy, the wife of a goldsmith.

चार khār, a blacksmith

खारबाय् khārabāy, a blacksmith's wife.

We can only use this for human beings. Thus, कोतर्बाय्  $k\bar{o}tarb\bar{a}y$  means the wife of a man of the  $k\bar{o}tar$  caste, and not the wife of a pigeon (कोत्र् $k\bar{o}tur$ ), the feminine of which is कोत्र् $k\bar{o}t^qr^{\bar{u}}$ .

Cf. No. 9.

2. When respect is not intended क्षान्य kŏlay is substituted for नाय bāy in the meaning of wife (vi. 3). Thus:—

बटकालय baṭakŏlay;

So from

कान् chān, a carpenter

कानकास्य chānakŏlay, the wife of a carpenter.

Cf. No. 9.

(3) All words ending in u- $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$ , change it to  $\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$  in the feminine (vi. 4), thus:—

पंड patu, a board

स्वेड motu, fat

ग्रें garu, hard

ग्रें guru, a horse

देव dobu, a washerman

पंट्र  $pat^{\bar{u}}$ , a tablet. म्बंट  $mwat^{\bar{u}}$ . गह्  $gar^{\bar{u}}$ .

गुरू gurā a mare.

दंब dwab<sup>ā</sup>, a woman who does washing. [Thus जान दंब Jāna dwab<sup>ā</sup>, Jāna the washerwoman. A washerman's wife would be दंबिबाय dwab<sup>i</sup>bāy.]

संद् kharu, having a scald head गूद् gūru, a cowherd

Note also words like—
कतुर् katuru, a large potsherd
म्बंगुर् moyguru, a male kid
नतुर् taturu, smarting of a wound
वोदुर् wōwuru, a weaver

चेह् khạr , the disease of scald-head.
गूह् gūr , as in जून गूह् Zūna gūr ,
Zūna the cowherdess. A cowherd's wife is गूरिवाय gūr bāy.

कत्र्  $kat^ar^{\bar{u}}$ , a small ditto. म्बंग्र्  $m\breve{o}\eta g^ar^{\bar{u}}$  a female kid. तत्र्  $tat^ar^{\bar{u}}$  the pain of anger. बोव्र्  $w\bar{o}w^ar^{\bar{u}}$ , a woman we aver.

[A weaver's wife is वोव्रिबाय्  $w\bar{o}w^ar^ib\bar{a}y$ .]

गगुर् gagur", a rat

गग्र gagarā.

As in the five last examples, all words of three or more syllables omit a penultimate  $\exists u$ , when forming the feminine (vi. 8). Cf. No. 4a.

The word  $\frac{1}{2}$   $\frac{tshot^u}{t}$ , small, makes its feminine  $\frac{1}{2}$   $\frac{tshwat^{\bar{u}}}{t}$ , or  $\frac{1}{2}$   $\frac{tshwat^{\bar{u}}}{t}$  (Cf. No. 8.) The latter is only used with reference to human beings. The former is universally used (vi. 5), thus:  $-\frac{1}{2}$  (or  $\frac{1}{2}$   $\frac{tshwat^{\bar{u}}}{t}$  (or  $\frac{tshwat^{\bar{u}}}{t}$ , a small girl.

So also we have  $\operatorname{\operatorname{det}} khar$ , an ass, feminine  $\operatorname{\operatorname{det}} khar^{\bar{u}}$  or  $\operatorname{\operatorname{det}} khari\tilde{n}$  (see No. 8).

- (4). Words ending in  $eq l^u$ , are subject to the following rules (vi. 7, 8, 29).
- (a) Words of three syllables and over, ending in  $ul^u$  change  $ul^u$  to  $^aj^{\bar{u}}$ , thus:—

Feminine.

गाटुल् gāṭulu, clever

पुरुषु phutulu, a bundle of things tied up in a shawl, &c.

चक्कलु <u>tsakulu</u>, circular

पतुनु patulu, a raft

ग्नगुलु gŏgulu, a big turnip

चतुलु tsŏtul", a sodomite

गार्जू  $gar{a}t^{ar{a}}j^{ar{u}}$ .

फुट्जू phuțaja a small bundle.

च्क्जू <u>tsakaj</u>u.

पत्ज् patajā, a mat.

ग्वग्ज्  $g \check{o} g^{a} j^{\bar{u}}$ , an ordinary turnip.

च्त्ज tsötaja.

वातुज् wātulu, a low-caste man वात्ज् wātajū. टहुज् ṭaṭhulu, a wooden vessel टह्ज् ṭaṭhajū, a small ditto.

(b) Words ending in the suffix বীৰূ  $w\bar{o}l^u$ , form the feminine in বাস্থান্  $w\bar{a}j\check{e}\tilde{n}$ , thus:—

गर्वो लु  $gar^aw\bar{o}l^u$ , a house-holder गर्वाच्यञ्  $gar^aw\bar{a}j\check{e}\tilde{n}$ .

The word बोल्  $w\bar{o}l^u$ , 'a ring' is not formed with this suffix.

(c) Other words in  $l^u$  form their feminines in  $\vec{s}_i$ , thus:—

गूज़  $g\bar{u}l^u$ , a kernel गूज़  $g\bar{u}j^{\bar{u}}$ , a small ditto.

Words in चोज़  $\bar{o}l^u$  change चो  $\bar{o}$  to  $\bar{u}$   $\bar{a}$ , thus:—

बोल्  $w\bar{o}l^u$ , a small ring वाज  $w\bar{a}j^{\bar{u}}$ , a small ditto.

मोसु  $m\bar{o}l^u$ , a father माजू  $m\bar{a}j^{\bar{u}}$ , a mother.

দ্বীলু tsrōlu, watchman দুল্ tsrājū.

Irregular is—
ভুলু dulu, a large bowl
ভুলু duliji, a small ditto.

(5) Words ending in क्  $k^u$ , ख़  $kh^u$ , ग़  $g^u$  (and also in क k, ख़ kh, ग़ g; but no examples are given) change क k to  $\xi$  c, ख  $\xi$  h to  $\xi$  c, and  $\xi$  g to  $\xi$  g (vi. 9), thus:—

Feminine.

बतुक् batuk", a drake बत्चू batac", a duck.

इंख hokhu, dry

पूँग dyűgu, a ball of string डी जू dűjü, a small ditto.

The vowel changes are those prescribed in the declension of nouns. Īçvara-kaula occasionally spells बत्चू  $bat^ac^{\bar{u}}$  बत्च्  $bat^ac$ .

Exceptions are (vi. 10.)

ज्य khũkhu, one who speaks through पूज् khũkhu. his nose.

ৰ্কু tsoku, sour

(6) Words in त t, थ th, द d, or n, with or without u- $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$ , change त् t to च ts, ष् th to इ tsh, द d to ज़ z, and न n to ज़ ñ. As usual,  $\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$  is omitted, in writing, after  $\vec{u}$ , (vi. 11.)

मंतु  $mat^u$ , mad

क्य kothu, a load

ष्यर् wörud", a second husband of one woman.

षन wan, a forest

गान् gān, a brothel-keeper

षान chān, a carpenter

चुन hūnu, a dog

मेचू matsa.

बार् kwatsha, a bag.

ब्बर्ज़् wŏraza, a woman who has married twice.

वंज wañ, a grove.

गांज  $g\bar{a}\tilde{n}$ , a prostitute.

हांच chāñ, as in জুৰ ছাজ্ $Zar{u}n^a$  $ch\bar{a}\tilde{n}$ , Zūna the carpentress.

इञ hūñ, a bitch.

(7) Certain words form their feminines by adding  $\tau r$  with various other changes, thus:-

Feminine.

कंग् kang, a brazier

चाम tsās, a cough

काँगर् kagar, a small ditto (vi. 12.)

चाखर tsākhar, an artificial cough, (vi. 13.)

चख् trăkh, a certain grain weight

चक्र trakar, a scale, (vi. 14.)

म्बंडु moṇḍu, a log

ষ্ঠান photu, a basket

चंद्र lạṭu, a tail

म्बंडर mondar, a small log (vi. 15.)

ষন্ত phŏtar, a small basket (vi. 16.)

सर् latar, a small tail, क्रूटि लटर्  $k\bar{u}t^i$  latar, a piece of wood cut off the end of a beam.

watsh", a male calf

यद् watshar, a female calf.

(8) Certain words form their feminines in the in (vi. 16-27), thus:— Feminine.

चंतु hastu, an elephant

काव kāv, a crow

नाम nāg, a snake.

पिमाञ् hastiñ.

काविष kāviñ.

नगिष्म गढ्यांग.

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बंद  $w\tilde{u}th$ , a camel

बर khar, an ass

वॅटिञ् wāṭiñ.

खरिञ khariñ, (see No. 3) or खंड kharū.

And so other words signifying animals.

गृह vyathu, stout

याद्र vyatha, stout, but यादिन् věthiñ (in a bad sense) stout, fat.

गूड gūṭhu, stupid

बर bŏta, a Tibetan

नुगिय् bugiy, a master

गूठिञ्  $g\bar{u}thi\tilde{n}$ .

म्बटिज् bötiñ, (बटिज् buțiñ), or घटनाय् bŏtabāy, a Tibetan woman.

ৰ্মিন্ bugiñ, a mistress.

ज़िल्ज zaliñ, sweat of the feet.

गरिन gariñ, a good mistress of a house; distinct from गर्वाच्यञ् garawājen, a female householder (see No. 9.)

गर gara, a house

ज़ल zal, water

द्विञ् dwabiñ, a washerman's club, but द्विवाय dwabibāy, a washer-

man's wife.

dob", a washerman

- (9) Certain nouns take  $\mathbf{q} = a\tilde{n}$  in the feminine (vi. 28.)
- (a) Names of castes.

Note that बाय् bāy (No. 1) is used as a feminine of respect; क्राज्य kötay (No. 2) is only used of a married woman, when spoken of in connexion with her husband, and without respect; while अञ् añ is a general feminine, without signifying respect, thus:-

बट baṭa, a Brāhman,

बटज़ baṭañ, a woman of that caste.

मुस्तान musalmān, a Musalmān

मुसन्तानज् musalmānañ, a Muhammadan woman.

चाकपाष् hākagrākh, a vegetable seller.

दाकप्राकञ् hākagrākañ.

ৰালু  $war{o}\tilde{n}^u$ , a shopkeeper

बाब्युज wāñyañ, a female shopkeeper.

So also all nouns with the suffix बोज wol", (vi. 29) as given in No. Thus:-**4** (b).

गर्वासु garawol", a householder

गर्वाच्यञ् garawājĕñ.

See also No. 8.

(10) If the masculine word ends in then the suffix is খঙ্গ লৈ (vi. 30), thus (see Secondary Suffixes No. 39.)

Feminine.

माल्र् sālar, a member of bridegroom's माल्यंच् sālarĕñ. party.

प्रहर् pöhar, an invited guest

प्रसर्थेञ pöhareñ.

रंगर् rangar, a dyer

रंग्र्यञ् rangareñ.

खन्ए sŏnar, a goldsmith

खन्यंञ् sŏnarĕñ.

दाँदुर  $d\tilde{a}d^ar$ , a vegetable seller

दाँद्यंञ dadareñ.

काँदुर  $k\tilde{a}d^ar$ , a baker

काँदुर्यञ् kadareñ.

So also we have—

खंडा soñ", a co-father-in-law

खञ्यञ *sŏñĕñ*.

मदाराज् mahārāza, a great king

महार्यञ् mahārĕñ, the wife of a great king, a bride.

राज rāza, a king

राज्यर्थञ rājyarĕñ, a queen.

(11) Finally we have  $\exists i \exists \tilde{a} \tilde{n}$  in the following (vi. 31):—

पंडिय pandith, a pandit

पंडितांच panditāñ.

गुज्र gujur", a forester

गुजर्मञ् gujarāñ.

(12) Irregular is (vi. 18)—

मख mäkh, an axe

मक्च  $mak^a \underline{ts}$ , a small axe.

#### В. Number.

Kāçmīrī, has two numbers, a Singular and a Plural. Dual number. The method of forming the plural will appear from the Declensional Paradigms.

#### C. Case.

Kāçmīrī nouns have, besides the Nominative, two inflected cases the Accusative, and the Agent. Other so-called cases are formed by the addition of postpositions to one of these two. The following are the cases given by İçvara-kaula.

Formed from the Accusative:-

Genitive,
Locative 1,
Dative 1,
Concomitant.

Formed from the Agent:—
Instrumental,
Locative 2,
Dative 2,
Ablative.

There is no Vocative, but, in case of address, a noun assumes a variety of forms which will be dealt with later on.

There are thus, excluding the Nominative, ten cases.

I now proceed to deal with each case separately.

### Accusative.

The Accusative has two forms, a longer and a shorter. The shorter is always the same as the nominative (ii. i. 39.)

In the masculine singular, the longer form always ends in s. In the feminine it ends in a,  $\check{e}$ , i, or  $\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$  (36-40). When the longer form of the accusative singular ends in i, that i is always fully pronounced. Thus Hife  $m\bar{a}li$ , not Hife  $m\bar{a}li$ . In the plural it always ends in n (12, 38).

#### Genitive.

The Genitive is formed by various affixes, added to the long form of the accusative.

In the case of masculine nouns, the s of the accusative singular is dropped before the termination, and the final vowel so left is pronounced short, as a mātrā vowel. Thus from दय् day, God: acc. sg. दयम् dayas; gen. sing. दय पेन्ट् daya sandu: acc. pl. दयम् dayan; gen. plur. दयम् पेन्ट् dayan handu.

So from गुन् guru, a horse: acc. sg. गुर्म guris; gen. sg., गुर् सन्द् guri sandu: acc. pl. गुर्चन् guryan; gen. pl. गुर्चन् इंन्ड् guryan handu.

The word with its genitive affix is treated as an adjective agreeing with the object possessed in gender and number.

Thus मो जि सेन्द्र न्यचित् māli sandu necyuv, the son of the father.
सो जि सेन्द्र न्यचिति māli sandi necivi, the sons of the father.

मंचि चंन्ज़ू कूरू māli sanzā kūrā, the daughter of the father.

मोलि सन्ज कोये māli sanza körë, the daughters of the father.

Moreover this genitive may even be treated as an independent base, and be regularly declined, with case affixes added to it.

Thus from मोलु mōl<sup>u</sup>, a father, the genitive masculine is मोलि मंद्र māl<sup>i</sup> sanl<sup>u</sup>, which may be declined like a masculine noun in u-mātrā, with a dative मोलि मन्दि पुद्ध māl<sup>i</sup> sandi putshy, which can be used instead of the simple dative मालि पुद्ध māli putshy. Indeed the dative formed from the genitive is in the case of this word the usual one, and the simple dative is scarcely used (ii. i. 61, 62, 63, 64).

The following are the affixes used to form the genitive:-

A. Masculine nouns with life which are not proper names take

- (a) in the singular, चंन्ड् sandu, E.g., दय संन्द् daya sandu, of God (46).
- (b) in the plural, इन्ह hand", E.g., दयन इन्ह dayan hand", of Gods (42).
- B. All feminine nouns without exception take इन्द्र handu, both in the singular, and in the plural. E.g., ब्यञ् इन्द्र beñe handu, of the sister; व्यञ्जन इन्द्र beñan handu, of the sisters; पोय्य इन्द्र pōthe handu, of the book; पोय्यन् इन्द्र pōthyan handu, of the books (42).
  - C. Masculine nouns without life take.
    - (a) In the singular ভক্ uk", (48) before which a is elided (i. 4), and i becomes y (i. 10). While when it follows ū-mātrā, the u of uk" is elided (i. 5). E.g., অনুক্ dyakuk", of a forehead; ক্লুক্ kulyuk", of a tree; হানুক্ dānūk", of a pomegranate.

(b) In the plural, the termination is इंद् handu, as above; e.g., यकन् इंद् dyakan handu, of foreheads.

EXCEPTION.—The words खन् son, gold, and वेप rop, silver, take the termination चन्द्र sandu in the singular, when the genitive is used in the sense of 'composed of.' E.g., खन पन्द्र क्ष्प्र sonu sandu chathar, an umbrella of gold, a golden umbrella. खनुक् क्ष्र sonuku chathar, would mean an umbrella belonging to gold,—a possessive genitive in fact (ii. i. 47).

Note.—When a genitive in उन्  $uk^u$  is treated as a declensional base, the उ u becomes u a in the oblique cases (64). Thus पंट्र  $pat^u$ , a woollen cloth. Gen. sg. पद्मुक्  $patyuk^u$ : Dative, परि पुर्ख pati putshy or पद्मिक पुर्ख pateki (spelled patyaki) putshy.

D. Masculine nouns which are proper names form their genitive singular in ভন্ un<sup>u</sup>, which is treated exactly like ভক্ uk<sup>u</sup>, (50). E.g., মোরস্তান Rādhākṛṣṇun<sup>u</sup> of Rādhākṛṣṇani putshy, for Rādhākṛṣṇa.

The plural is formed regularly with इंद् handu, e.g. रामन् इंद् Rāman handu, of (many) Rāmas.

It will thus be seen that the suffix of the genitive of all plural nouns, and of all feminine nouns is  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} handu$ .

When the thing possessed is feminine singular, or masculine or feminine plural, the following changes in the genitive affixes occur:—

Singular.		Plural.	
Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
चन्द् sandu	प्रका sanzū (46, 44)	चे [न्द sandi (46,43)	स•ज sanza (46, 45)
इंद्र handu	इंज़् hạnzū (44)	र्च्स handi (43)	इन्ज़ hanza (45)
ভকু $uk^u$	च् c <sup>ū</sup> (49)	कि ki (48)	च <sup>ca</sup> 1 (49)
<b>उन्</b> ॥॥॥	জু ñ (51)	नि ni (50)	ज़ ñĕ (51)

THING POSSESSED IN THE

Examples in order as:—

मां िस संन्यु क्यांचित्  $m\bar{a}l^i$  sand  $m\bar{e}cyuv$ , the son of the father. मां िस संन्यू कूक्  $m\bar{a}l^i$  sanz  $k\bar{u}r^{\bar{u}}$ , the daughter of the father.

1 So written by Içvara-kaula. च cĕ would be more correct, but, च c being a palatal letter, there is practically no difference in the pronunciation.

मां सि मंदि न्यचिवि māli sandi něcivi, the sons of the father.

मां सि मन्त्र कोर्य māli sanza kōrē, the daughters of the father.

मान्यन् चन्द्र गुन् mālyan handu guru, the horse of the fathers.

मान्यन् चन्त्र गुन् mālyan hanzā gurā, the mare of the fathers.

मान्यन् चन्त्र गुन् mālyan handi guri, the horses of the fathers.

मान्यन् चन्त्र गुन् mālyan hanza gurē, the mares of the fathers.

मान्यन् चन्न गुन् mālyan hanza gurē, the mares of the fathers.

मान्यन् चन्न kulyuku lang, a bough of a tree.

मुन् चन्द्र kulicā landā, a twig of a tree.

मुन् चन्त्र kulicā landā, a twig of the tree.

पामन् न्यचिव् Rāmunu něchyuv, Rāma's son.

पामन् न्यचिव् Rāman kūrā, Rāma's daughter.

पामन् न्यचिव् Rāman něcivi, Rāma's sons.

रामन् न्यचिव् Rāman něcivi, Rāma's daughters.

# Locative, 1.

There are two forms of the Locative. The first I shall call Loc. 1. It has the meaning indicated by its postpositions.

This Locative is formed by adding the postpositions खन्दर् andar (ii. i. 52), in; सञ्ज्ञ manz (52), in; षाड् pyăth (52), upon; काश् kyăth (53), in; to the longer form of the Accusative. In Poetry, वेष vēṣ² is also used in the sense of 'upon' (52). Thus सूज् mūl, a root; Acc. sg. सूज्म् mūlas; Loc. sg. सूज्म् खन्दर् mūlas andar; सूज्म् मञ्ज्ञाविक manz, in a root; सूज्म् षाड् mūlas pyăth, on a root; Acc. pl. सूज्न् mūlan; सूज्न् खन्दर् mulan andar, in roots.

The postposition काय kyăth can only be used with words which mean a receptacle. Thus we can say याजन काय thālas kyāth, in a dish; or even नानि काय nāvi kyāth, in a boat; but we cannot say गरम् काय garas kyāth, in a house or मूजम काय mūlas kyāth, in a root, because a house, or a root, are not used as receptacles for putting things into.

काथ kyăth can also be used with any word signifying a means of conveyance, and it must then sometimes be translated by 'on.' Thus गुरिस् काथ guris kyăth, or गुरिस् षाद guris pyăth, on horseback.

Loc. 2 will be dealt with subsequently.

# Dative, 1.

There are two forms of the Dative, one formed by adding postpositions to the Accusative, the other by adding postpositions to the Instrumental. The first I shall call Dat. 1, the second, Dat. 2. The Dat. 2, will be subsequently dealt with.

Dat. 1 is formed by adding the postposition fan kyutu, for, to the longer form of the Accusative (ii. i. 54, 55). The compound thus formed, agrees in number and gender with the thing given, the word 'given' being taken in its widest sense to agree with the original meaning of the name of the case. The following are the forms which fan kyutu takes:—

Sing. Masc. fan kitu (kyutu)

Fem. किन् kitsa

Pl. Masc. किति kit'

Fem. কিব kitso

Thus मोलिस कितृ चनुन् पोञ् mālis kyutu anun pōñu, he brought water (masc. sg.) for the father.

मोलिए किन् चंजून गाव mālis kits a añan gāv, he brought a cow (fem. sg.) for the father.

गुरिस् किति चनिन् रव guris kiti anin rava, he brought blankets (masc. pl.) for the horse.

ग्वरम् किच् अञान् पोथ्य gŏras kits añyan pōthe, he brought books (fem. pl.) for the teacher.

# Concomitant.

This case is used in the sense of 'with,' or 'accompanying.'
It is formed by adding the postpositions स्तिन् sātin or स्तिय् sāty
to the longer form of the Accusative (ii. i. 60). Thus मालिए स्तिन् साय्

mālis sātin āv, he came with his father; बाधिम् स्रोत्य म्यूज् bāyis sāty myūlu, he met with his brother; माज्यन् स्रोतन् mālyan sātin, with the fathers.

In this case it is always implied that the person who is accompanied is the principal and he who accompanies, is the appendage (iv. 185).

Thus 'he came with his father' means here that he came in a subordinate character (iv. 185).

If it is wished to reverse the superiority of the parties we must use the word पान् sān. Thus महिन् पान् पान् mālis sān āv, he came with his father, means 'he brought his father along with him.' If दिन् sūtin had been used, it would have meant that the father brought the son along with him (iv. 185).

# Agent.

The case of the Agent is formed in the Singular as follows:-

- (1) In the case of Masc. nouns ending in consonants by adding चन् an; thus दण् day, God; Ag. sg. दयन dayan. In the older forms of the language the suffix was र i: e.g., द्या day! dap", by God it was said, God said. The modern phrase would be दयन देषु dayan dap" (ii. i. 58).
- (2) In the case of Masculine nouns (except pronouns) ending in a, the same suffixes appear. Thus from पन dyake, a forehead; Ag. sg. पन्न dyakan, or (old) पन्न dĕki (58). Pronouns take i-mātrā in the masc. sg., e.g., निम tạmi, by him, (58).
- (3) In the case of Masculine nouns ending in u-mātrā, i-mātrā is substituted for u-mātrā. Thus, क्रिंग्य, a bracelet; Ag. sg. क्रिंग्य (56).
- (4) In the case of Masculine nouns ending in  $\bar{u}$ -mātrā, by adding  $\bar{q}$  n; e.g., from হানু  $d\bar{q}n^{\bar{u}}$ , a pomegranate; Ag. sg. হানুন্  $d\bar{q}n^{\bar{u}}n$ . [Īçvara-kaula gives no rule for forming the agent of these nouns, but the above is the correct form.]
- (5) In the case of Feminine nouns ending in a, by substituting i (which is fully pronounced, and not i-mātrā) for a: e.g.,
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from অঙ্গ  $b\check{e}\tilde{n}\check{e}$  (spelled  $bya\tilde{n}^a$ ), a sister; Ag. sg. অঙ্গি  $b\check{e}\tilde{n}i$  (56).

- (6) In the case of Feminine nouns ending in i-mātrā or ū-mātrā, a fully pronounced i is substituted for the i-mātrā or ū-mātrā: e.g., from 東東 pūthi, a book; Ag. sg. 可证 pōthi.

  So from 東東 kūrā, a girl; Ag. sg. 南代 kōri (56).
- a fully pronounced i: e.g., from माज  $m\bar{a}l$  a garland, माजि  $m\bar{a}li$  (56). The irregular nouns, however, which end in t, th, d, n, h, and l, add  $\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}:$  e.g., from रात्  $r\bar{a}t$ , night; Ag. sg. राष्ट्र  $r\bar{a}t$ s $\bar{u}$ . [This last rule is not expressly stated by Içvara-kaula, but may be inferred from  $s\bar{u}tra$  7, read with  $s\bar{u}tra$  17.]

The Agent plural is formed by adding au (56). Before this, a is elided, and i- $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$  and u- $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$  become y. After  $\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$  (except in the case of Feminine nouns in  $\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$ , in which y is substituted) au becomes v (20). Examples are:—

From	Ag. Plural.
दय् day, God	दयो dayau
অৰ dyaka, the forehead	चकौः dyakau
केर् karu, a bracelet	कर्यी karyau
द्रान् dānā, a pomegranate	दान्व dānav
खन् bĕnĕ (byaña), a sister	खड़ी bĕñau
पूरिष pūthi, a book	पोय्यो pothyau
कूरू kūrā, a girl	कोर्यी köryau
माल् māl, a garland	माजी mālau
रात् rāt, night	राम्ब रक्षिय

# Instrumental.

The Instrumental is formed by adding that sūtin or the sūty sūty to the Agent, the final n of Masculine nouns in consonants, a, or ū-mātrā being elided, (ii. i. 4, 59.). Thus—

मूल mūl, a root; Ag. sg. मूलन् mūlan; Instr. sg. मूल स्ट्रीतन् mūla sptin, by means of a root; Ag. pl. मूली mūlau; Instr. pl. मूली स्ट्रीतन् mūlau sptin.

When स्रोतन sūtin follows i-mātrā, the i is fully pronounced (6). Thus केर् karu, a bracelet; Ag. sg. करि स्रोतन स्रोतन स्रोतन स्रोतन

This case can also be formed by adding the same postposition to the agent case of the masculine genitive treated as an independent base, as explained above (61). Thus va dyako, a forehead; masc. gen. sg. van dyakoko; Agent of ditto, van dyakoko; Instr. van tan dyakoko sūtin or van tan dyakoko sūtin.

So from गुर् guru, a horse. Ag. sg. गुर्र guri; Gen. Sg. गुर्र सन्द् guri sandu; Instr. गुरि स्ट्रीतन् guri sātin, or गुर्र सन्दि स्ट्रीतन् guri sandi sātin.

### Locative 2.

The Locative 2 has the meaning of 'from in,' and is formed by adding the postposition was and rot to the Agent, (n being dropped in the case of masculines in consonants, and a, and  $\bar{u}$ -mātrā.) Thus, from  $\bar{u} = gar^a$ , a house; Ag. sg.  $\bar{u} = garan$ ; Loc. 2, sg.  $\bar{u} = garan = andra$ , from in the house; ag. pl.  $\bar{u} = garan = andra$ , (ii. i. 57).

Examples of the use of this case are no seq seq gara andra and bring out from the house, lit. bring from in the house.

गर अन्द्र कुर् जान् जांक  $gar^a$  and  $ar^a$  chuh jān  $l\tilde{q}k^a$ , among the people in (lit. from in) the house, (only) so and so is good.

गरी अन्द्र अहर् आन् आंगुन् garau andra chuh jān ब्रिंगा, the only good thing in the houses is the court-yard.

This form can only be used in the meaning called in Skr. nirdhāranē, i.e., in words meaning जाति jāti, a species (including all plurals); गुण guṇa, a quality; किया  $kriy\bar{a}$ , an act; मंजा  $samij\tilde{n}\bar{a}$ , an appellation; and means that one of several is taken.

# जात्या गुणेन क्रियया मंज्ञया वा प्रथक्ष्ठतिः। समूचादेकदेशस्य निर्धारणिनित स्नृतम्॥

Examples:-

Species. A Brāhmaṇa is the best amongst men.

Quality. Amongst cows a black one gives most milk.

Action. Amongst men who go, he who runs is the swiftest.

Appellation. Amongst the pupils Maitra is the cleverest. See Siddhanta Kaumudi (Bibl. Ind. Ed.) I, 311. In all the above "amongst" means "from among."

It is evident that the form can hardly ever be used except in the plural. In the paradigms, singular forms are given for the sake of completeness, but it is doubtful if they can be used in that number.

# Dative 2.

According to Içvara-kaula, this form is only used to a moderate extent ( $s\bar{a}m\bar{a}nya$ ) (ii. i. 63). It is in fact rarely used. It has the same meaning as the Dat. 1. It is formed by adding you putshy to the Agent, or (as has been explained under the head of the Instrumental) to the Agent case of the Genitive. Before you putshy, as in the case of the satisfic satisfic, i-mātrā is fully pronounced. Thus,—you you putra putshy, or you will not a good putshy.

# Ablative.

The Ablative is formed from the Agent by adding the postpositions us pyath, literally from on, hence, from near; and niço, from near; andra, from among, from in (ii. i. 65).

Thus, गाम पाठ gāma pyatha, from the village; गामो पाठ gāmau pyatha from the villages; सपी निम sarpau niça, from the serpents; गर सन्द्र द्वाव gara andra drāv, he came out from the house; नाव सन्द्र द्वाव nāvi andra drāv, he came out from the boat, (65).

[Masculine living beings can also add these postpositions, in the singular only, to the longer form of the Accusative. Thus पूर्य निम्म tsūras niça, from the thief; ग्रिम निम्म guris niça, from the horse.]

The ablative of comparison is formed with the postpositions URA khote or URA khoten, fan niçe or fan niçen, which are added either to the agent direct, or to the Agent case of the Genitive treated as a base. In the case of some words, e.g., ray gor, a teacher, only the latter idiom is used.

E.g., ग्वर सन्दि खत हुइ गाउँ हु gŏro sandi khŏto chuh gāṭulo, he is more clever than the teacher. We cannot say ग्वर खत gŏro khŏto. क्य पन्दि (or क्या) खत हुइ वक्कर् kaño handi (or kuño) khŏto chuh trakura, he is harder than a stone; वेप निश्च हुइ खन् जान् rŏpo niço chuh sŏn jān, gold is better than silver (ii. i. 62).

## D. Declension.

Kāçmirī nouns have four declensions.

The first declension consists of masculine nouns ending in a consonant, in  $\neg a$ , or in  $\neg \bar{u}$ -matra. The base in this declension ends in a.

The second declension consists of masculine nouns ending in  $\nabla u - m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$ . The base in this declension ends in i.

The third declension consists of feminine nouns ending in  $\bar{\zeta}$   $i\text{-}m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{\eta}$   $\bar{u}\text{-}m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$ , or  $\bar{\eta}$   $\bar{n}$ . The last is only another way of writing  $\bar{\eta}$   $\bar{n}$ . It may be considered as the feminine form of the 2nd declension. The base in this declension also ends in i, and this declension is closely connected with the second, as feminine and masculine.

The fourth declension consists of feminine nouns ending in a consonant or in  $\P a$ . Certain feminine nouns of this declension ending in a consonant, are irregular, and form a class by themselves.

There are thus two masculine, and two feminine declensions.

Acc.

# FIRST DECLENSION.

Masculine nouns ending in a consonant, in a a, or in a u-matra.

(a). Noun ending in a consonant.

चर् tsūr, a thief.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

Nom. বৃং tsūr (ii. i. 3).

चूरम् tsūras (36, 38). च

चर् <u>ts</u>ūr (39).

Loc. 1. चूरस् पाठ्  $ts\bar{u}ras\ pyăth$  (52), &c.

Dat. 1. चूर्स् कित् <u>ts</u>ūras kyut<sup>a</sup> (54, 55).

Concom. चूर्स् स्ट्रीतन् tsūras sūtin (60).

Agent. चूरन् tsūran (58).

चूरि  $\underline{ts}\bar{u}r^{i}$  (58) (obsolete).

Instr. चूर स्तिन्  $\underline{ts}\bar{u}r^a$   $s\bar{u}tin$  (6, 59).

चूर सन्दि स्ट्रेतिन्  $\underline{ts}\bar{u}r^a$  sandi  $s\bar{u}tin$  (61).

Loc. 2. (বুং ঋন্ম <u>ts</u>ūr<sup>a</sup> andr<sup>a</sup>)
(4, 57).

Dat. 2. चूर पुछ् <u>tsūra putshy</u> (63).

चर सन्दि पुष्य tsūra sandi putshy (63).

 $\Delta$ bl. বুং নিম  $\underline{t}s\bar{u}r^a$   $-nic^a$  (65).

[or चूरस् निम tsūras niça].

चूर् tsūr (3).

च्रन् tsūran (13, 38).

चुर् <u>ts</u>ūr (39).

चूरन् इन्द् tsūran handu (42).

चूरन् कित् <u>ts</u>ūran kyutu (54, 55).

चूरन् स्रेतिन् tsūran sūtin (60).

नूरो tsūrau (56).

मूरी स्रतिन् tsūrau sūtin (59).

भूरन् इन्दि स्ट्रितन् tsūran handi sūtin (61).

चूरी चन्द्र tsūrau andra (57).

चूरी पुण् tsūrau putshy (63).

चूरन् इन्दि पुछ् tsūran handi putshy (63).

चूरौ निम tsūrau niça (65).

Similarly are declined दय day, God; कान् kāv, a crow; खन् sŏn, gold; वेप rŏp, silver; पुन् putr, a son; वण्ए wathar, a leaf; लमुज् tŏmul, husked rice; दार् hār, name of a month, Āṣāḍha; म्नंग् mŏŋg, name of a grain, phaseolus mungi; माग् māg, name of a month, Māgha; दूष् dŏh, a day; नाग् nāg, a spring; कर् kat [nom. sg. and pl. कर् kāth (66)], a ram; रत् rat [nom. sg. and pl. रथ् răth, (66)], blood; पोष् pōṣ, a flower; वाज् wāl, hair; गज् gal, the cheek; जन् gŏr, a preceptor, a Brāhman.

Numerals take i instead of a in the Agent and connected cases, e.g., धित स्रतिन् sati sūtin, by sevens (ii. i. 5).

If a noun ends in खर् ur [or खन् un], the u is changed to a in all cases except the nominative singular, e.g., बाँदुर् wādur, a monkey; nom. pl. बाँदर् wādar; instr. बाँदरी स्तिन् wādarau sūtin (32). [So infinitives like करन् karun; acc. करनम् karanas].

If in the case of masculine nouns of the first declension the final consonant is preceded by the vowel  $\bar{u}$ , that  $\bar{u}$  becomes  $\bar{o}$ , in all cases of the plural except the nominative, but remains unchanged in the singular and in the nominative plural. The following masculine words ending in consonants do not, however, change this  $\bar{u}$  (35).

मूल् mūl, a root.

ब्ब् chūl, a cascade.

इस् dūs, a stout club.

जूद्र्  $l\bar{u}d^ar$ , eagerly desirous.

सूब्र् lūbar, eagerly desirous.

बूट wilt (nom. sg. बूट wilth, 66), a camel.

बूत् būt (nom. sg. बूध् būth, 66),

a ghost.

क्ट्र rūd, rain.

सर् sūr, ashes.

इस् hūs, an uproar.

[च्र tsūr, a thief], and others.

खूक  $l\bar{u}k$  (nom. sg. खूख  $l\bar{u}kh$ , 66), people.

Thus from मूज् mūl, acc. pl. मूजन् mūlan, not मोजन् mōlan.

Nom. sg. and pl.

चक् trak, a certain grain measure.

चंख् trăkh.

काच्  $k\bar{a}\underline{t}\underline{s}$ , glass, a disease of the chest.

are kātsh.

कट kat, a ram.

कड kăth.

रत् rat, blood.

रच् răth.

चत् hat, a hundred.

द्रथ् hăth.

नाप् tap, sunshine.

नाफ्  $t\bar{a}ph$ .

The aspiration is very faintly heard, being a final letter, but it affects the preceding vowel. The aspiration does not occur in the other cases; e.g., बन स्तिन् trake satin (instr.); काच स्तिन् kātse sātin; कट पुष् kate putshy (dat. 2); नापम् ष्यद् tāpas pyāth (loc.).

This aspiration does not occur if a final  $\tau$  t or  $\tau$  ts forms part of a compound consonant (even when a short is introduced between them to aid pronunciation) (68); thus:—

स्य sats, a tailor (Elmslie, suts); nom. sg. and pl. स्य sats, not स्र satsh.

मज् mast, hair; nom. sg. and pl. मज् mast, not मख् măsth.

The word  $\exists i \in by\bar{a}kh$ , another (2, 3, 24), becomes  $\exists i \in biy$  in all cases except the nom. sg., and is partially declined like a noun ending in u- $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$  (2nd declension); thus—

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Nom. व्याख् byākh विय् biy.

Acc. वियम् biyis. वियम् biyan.

Ag. वियि biyi. वियो biyau.

The Fem. Ag. is fast biyi. In other forms it is the same as the Masc. This is really a compound word: made up of abi, other, and abi, one. The oblique forms are made up of the base abi, together with the emphatic particle abi, which accounts for the apparent irregularities. abi is of the 2nd declension.

Noun ending in a.

ৰক dyaka a forehead.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

ड्यक dyaka (ii. i. 1). Nom.

डाक dyaka (1).

डाकम् dyakas (38). Acc.

डाकन dyakan (38).

चक dyaka (39).

**चक** @yaka (39).

**ब**कुकु dyakuku (41, 48). Gen.

यकन् इन्दु dyakan handu (42).

Loc. 1. चकम् पाठ् dyakas pyățh,

चकन् घड dyakan pyățh, &c. (52,

&c., (52, 53).

53).

चकस् कितु dyakas kyutu Dat. 1. (54, 55).

चकन् कितु  $dyakan kyut^u$  (54, 55).

चक्स स्ट्रीतन् dyakas sūtin Concom. (60).

यकन् स्तिन् dyakan sūtin (60).

डाकन dyakan (i. 5a) Agent.

द्यकौ dyakau (56; i. 4).

or ब्राम्ब dĕki (obsolete) (58; i.4).

चक स्रीतन् dyaka sūtin Instr.

(6, 59).

चकि स्तिन् dyakaki

 $s\bar{u}tin$  (61).

खक अन्द्र dyako andra Loc. 2. (4, 57).

चक पुर्व dyaka putshy Dat. 2. (63).

> यक िक पुच्च dyakakiputshy (67).

चक निम dyaka niça Abl. (65).

चनी स्तिन dyakau sūtin (59).

धकन् इन्दि स्तिन् dyakan handi  $s\bar{u}tin$  (61).

चकौ चन्द्र dyakau andra (57).

चकी पुछा dyakau putshy (63).

चकन् इन्टि पुच् dyakan handi putshy (63).

चकौ निम dyakau niça (65).

Similarly are declined गर  $gar^a$ , a house; खथ  $\check{a}th^a$ , a hand; इ.ज.  $d\bar{a}\tilde{n}\check{e}$ , rice; बत bata, boiled rice.

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# (c). Noun ending in \$\varphi \bar{u} \cdot m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}.\$

द्रान् dānā, a pomegranate.

दौन् तैवृं $n^{\bar{u}}$  (ii. i. 2). दौन् तैवृं $n^{\bar{u}}$  (2). दौन् तैवृं $n^{\bar{u}}$ s (38). दौन् तैवृं $n^{\bar{u}}$ n (31, 13, 33). दौन् तैवृं $n^{\bar{u}}$  (39). दौन् तैवृं $n^{\bar{u}}$  (41, 48). दौन् चे प् तैवृं $n^{\bar{u}}$  तिवृं $n^{\bar{u$ Nom. Acc. Gen. दोन्स प्रष्ठ  $d\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}s$  pyăth, दोन्न प्राट  $d\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}n$  pyăth, &c. (52, Loc. 1. &c. (52, 53). 53). द्रांनूम् कितु  $d\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}s$   $kyut^u$  द्रांनून् कितु  $d\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}n\,kyut^u$  (54, 55) Dat. 1. दोन्स् स्रिन् dānās sūtin दोन्न् स्रिन् dānān sūtin (60). Concom. द्रिन् danun. द्रिन्व danuv (20, 31, 56). Agent. दोनू स्रीतन्  $d\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}$  sūtin दोन्व् स्रीतन्  $d\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}v$  sūtin (59). Instr. दौनूिक स्रिन्  $d\bar{q}n^{\bar{u}}ki$  दौनून् स्रिन्  $d\bar{q}n^{\bar{u}}n$  handi  $s\bar{u}tin$  (61). दोनू चन्द्र  $d\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}$  and  $r^a$  दोनूव् चन्द्र  $d\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}v$  and  $r^a$  (57). Dat. 2. दोनू पुद्ध  $d\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}$   $pu\underline{ts}hy$  दोनूष पुद्ध  $d\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}v$   $pu\underline{ts}hy$  (63). दौनूिक पुद्ध  $d\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}ki$  दौनून् सन्दि पुद्ध  $d\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}n$  handi  $pu\underline{ts}hy$  (63). दोन् निम  $d\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}$   $niç^a$  दोन्व निम  $d\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}v$   $niç^a$  (65). Abl.

Îçvara-kaula gives no rule for forming the agent singular of these nouns. but दोन्स  $d\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}n$  is the correct form.

(65).

The following words are optionally declined as if ending in consonants,  $\sqrt{g} ganz^{\bar{u}}$ , a leather-worker;  $\sqrt{g} g\bar{a}s^{\bar{u}}$ , a grass-seller;  $\sqrt{g} b\bar{a} ts^{\bar{u}}$ ,

people of a house; हांच्र  $h\bar{a}nz^{\bar{u}}$ , a boatman. Thus, acc. plur. गंज्ञन  $ganz^{\bar{u}}n$ or गज्जन ganzan, (15).

It must be remembered that  $\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$  at the end of a word is not pronounced. Before a consonant (as in  $d\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}v$ ) it is pronounced like a short German ü. It is, also, slightly pronounced in the Instr. Loc. 2, Dat. 2, and Abl. Sing. Before  $\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$ , a preceding a or  $\bar{a}$  must be modified to a or  $\bar{a}$  respectively (70); e.g., as in  $\xi = d\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}$ .

Second Declension.

Masculine Nouns in  $\forall u\text{-}m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}.$ कं kar", a bracelet. कर karu (ii. i. 8). करि kari (30). करिष् karis (30, 38). कर्यन् karyan (12, 30, 38). Acc. केष्  $kar^{u}$  (39). केष्  $karyuk^{u}$  (41, 48). कर्षन्  $karyuk^{u}$  (41, 48). कर्षन्  $karyuk^{u}$  (42). कर karu (39). Gen. करिष् ष्यड् karis pyățh, कर्यन् ष्यड् karyan pyăth, &c. Loc. 1. &c. (52, 53). (52, 53).करिस् कित् karis  $kyut^u$  कर्यन् कित् karyan  $kyut^u$  (54, 55). Dat. 1. (54, 55). करिस् स्निन् karis sūtin क्यन् स्निन् karyan sūtin (60). Concom. **(**60). कर्यी karyau (56, 80; i. 10). क्रि kari (6, 56). Agent. कर्यी स्ट्रितन् karyau sūtin (59). करि स्त्रीतन् kari sūtin Instr. (59).कर्यन् इन्दि स्ंतिन् karyan handi कर्यनि स्त्रीतन् kareki sūtin (61).  $s\bar{u}tin$  (61). कर्यी खन्द्र karyau andra (57). Loc. 2. करि छन्द्र kari andra (57). कर्यी पुच्च karyau putshy (63).

करि पुरा kari putshy

(63).कर्यकि पुछ् karëki putshy कर्यन् इन्दि पुछ् karyan handi

**(63).** करि निम्म kari niço putshy (63). कयी निम karyau niça.

[also गुरिस निम guris niça (in the case of masculine nouns with life).

Similarly are declined  $gur^u$ , a horse;  $gur^u$ , a cow-herd;  $gur^u$ , a kernel, especially of the singārā;  $gur^u$ , a tree.

The final u becomes i (or y) throughout, except in the Nominative Singular, (30).

If the penultimate of a masculine noun contains the vowel  $\bar{u}$ , that  $\bar{u}$  becomes  $\bar{o}$  in all cases of the Plural except the nominative. It does not change in the singular, or in the nominative plural, (34).

Thus गूर्  $g\bar{u}r^u$ , a cowherd; acc. sg. गूरिस्  $g\bar{u}ris$ ; nom. pl. गूरि  $g\bar{u}r^i$ , but acc. pl. गोर्थन्  $g\bar{o}ryan$ .

The following words in u- $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$  are exceptions, and do not change. the  $\bar{u}$  (35).

कसूर् kastūru, the nightingale.

कूटु kūṭu, a tree-trunk.

મુંદ to ũtu, an apple.

za tūru, a woman's eating platter.

डूत्  $d\bar{u}r^u$ , a flower-bed.

नस्र् nastūru, having a deformed nose.

Thus from कसूर् kastūru, acc. pl. कसूर्यन् kastūryan.

If a masculine noun ends in u-mātrā, and has द्यों  $\bar{o}$  in the penultimate, this  $\bar{o}$  becomes  $\bar{a}$  in all cases of the singular except the nominative, and throughout the plural. Moreover, this  $\bar{a}$  is modified to  $\bar{a}$  before i-mātrā, and in the accusative singular (69, 70). Thus, वोज्  $w\bar{o}l^u$ , an earring; acc. sg. वाज्जिम  $w\bar{a}lis$ ; gen. sg., वाज्जुक  $w\bar{a}lyuk^u$  (from मोज्ज्  $m\bar{o}l^u$ , a father, मोज्जि सेन्ट्र  $m\bar{a}l^i$  sandu); ag. sg. वाज्जि  $w\bar{a}li$ ; instr. sg. वाज्जि  $w\bar{a}li$  satin (here the i is not i-mātrā, but is fully pronounced); nom. pl. वाज्जि  $w\bar{a}li$ ; acc. pl. वाज्जव  $w\bar{a}lyan$ ; ag. pl. वाज्जो  $w\bar{a}lyau$ . Similarly are declined मोज्जु  $m\bar{o}l^u$ , a father, and वोध्  $b\bar{o}y^u$ , a brother; also masculine possessive pronouns, such as  $m\bar{a}li$   $my\bar{o}n^u$ , mine;  $m\bar{o}li$  mine; mine

Thus nom. sg. स्योन्  $my\bar{o}n^u$ ; acc. sg. स्योनिस्  $my\bar{a}nis$ ; gen. sg. स्योनिस्  $my\bar{a}n^i$  sandu; ag. sg. स्योनि  $my\bar{a}n^i$ ; nom. pl. स्योनि  $my\bar{a}n^i$ ; acc. pl. स्यान्यन्  $my\bar{a}nyan$ ; ag. pl. स्यान्यौ  $my\bar{a}nyau$ ; Instr. sg. स्यानि स्रोतिन्  $my\bar{a}ni$  sātin, or स्योनि स्रोतिन्  $my\bar{a}ni$  sandi sātin. So also the others (ii. iii. 11 and ff.)

Moreover, whenever, in this declension, the letter a or  $\bar{a}$  is followed by  $i\text{-}m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$ , or  $u\text{-}m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$ , the a or  $\bar{a}$  become a or  $\bar{a}$  respectively. (ii. i. 70); thus,—

Base पर pat, a woollen cloth; nom. sg. पर patu; ag. sg. परि pati; nom. pl. परि pati; but, acc. sg. परिस् patis (not परिस् patis, as in the case of वोस् wollu); Instr. sg. परि स्तिन् pati sūtin (fully pronounced i); acc. pl. परान् patyan; ag. pl. पर्यो patyau. So also देर hatu, the neck; वेन् tạnu, the body; पंद् sandu, suffix of genitive (acc. sg. परिस् sandis; ag. sg. परिस् sandi; instr. sg. परि स्तिन् sandi sūtin; nom. pl. परिस् sandi; acc. pl. परान् sandyan; ag. pl. परान् sandyau): similarly परान् patyuku of a woollen cloth; acc. sg. पर्विस् patěkis; ag. sg. पर्विस् patyaki; instr. sg. पर्वित् patěki sūtin; nom. pl. पर्वित् patyaki; acc. pl. परान् patěkyan; ag. pl. परान् patěkyau.

Nouns in u- $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$ , of three or more syllables, if they have u in the penultimate, omit the u before i- $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$ , and change it to a in all other cases except the nominative singular (73, 75); thus:—

गाटुल् gāṭulu, clever; acc. sg. गाटिल सूर्विtalis; ag. sg. गाट्ल gāṭli (pronounced gāṭali); instr. sg. गाटिल सूर्तिन् gāṭali sūṭin; gen. sg. गाट्ल संन् gāṭli sandu; nom. pl. गाट्ल gāṭli; acc. pl. गाटल्यन् gāṭalyan; ag. pl. गाटल्यो gāṭalyau.

This does not occur in the case of dissyllables; e.g., from कुल्  $kul^u$ , a tree; acc. sg. कुल्प kulis, and not किल्प kalis.

The following words in u- $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$ , with u in the penultimate, change

the penultimate u to a in all cases except the nominative, and are then declined like nouns of the first declension ending in consonants (74.)

बार्जु kötshulu, a porter.

चुतुसु tsŏtulu, a sodomite.

चकुलु tsakulu, circular.

ग्वगुलु gŏgulu, globular.

वातुलु wātulu, a low-caste man.

षतुक् batuku, a drake.

गगर् gagur<sup>u</sup>, a rat.

म्बद्ग mönguru, a kid.

बाकुर् kökuru, a cock (iv. 1).

कोतुर् kōturu, a pigeon (iv. 1).

So also words in र ru signifying professions, &c. (iv. 6, 99 and ff.), e.g., खनुर् sŏnuru, a goldsmith, मनुर् manuru, a shell worker.

See secondary suffixes No. 39. Thus,—

Nom. sg. वाब्रु kötshulu; acc. sg. वाब्रुस् kötshalas; gen. sg. वाब्रुस् संह्रित्र हुए। sg. वाब्रुस् संह्रित्र हुए। sg. वाब्रुस् संह्रित्र हुए। sg. वाब्रुस् संह्रित्र हुए। वाब्रुस् संह्रित्र हुए। वाब्रुस् हुए। वाब्रुस् संह्रित्र हुए। वाब्रुस् हुए। वाब्रुस् संह्रित्र हुए। वाब्रुस् हुए। वाब्रुस् हुए। वाब्रुस 
If a word ending in u-mātrā has yu or i in the penultimate of the nom. sg., it has i in the penultimate in all the other cases (ii. i. 76). [These words are spelt indifferently with yu or i in the nominative, but are always pronounced as if yu was written. Thus महन्यु mahanyuvu, or महन्यु mahanivu, a man, both pronounced mahanyuv; न्यु zyuthu, or नित्रु zithu, old, but both pronounced zyuth. On the other hand, in other cases, except the nominative, we have only i, pronounced as i]: thus; न्यु zyuthu, old; acc. sg. नित्र zithis; ag. sg. नित्र zithi; nom. pl. नित्र zithi; acc. pl. नित्र zithyan; ag. pl. नित्र zithyau.

Similarly, when the penultimate is  $y\bar{u}$ , it becomes  $\bar{i}$  before  $i\text{-}m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$  or is, and  $\bar{e}$  in other cases, except the nom. sg. (77, 78); thus,—

Nom. sg. चृत्  $\underline{t}\underline{s}y\bar{u}n^u$ , a wall; acc. sg. चीनिस्  $\underline{t}\underline{s}\bar{\imath}nis$ ; gen. sg. चेनुक्  $\underline{t}\underline{s}\bar{e}nyuk^u$ ; ag. sg. चीनि  $\underline{t}\underline{s}\bar{\imath}n^i$ ; instr. sg. चेनि स्तिन्  $\underline{t}\underline{s}\bar{e}ni$   $s\bar{\imath}itin$  (not  $i-m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$ ); nom. pl. चीनि  $\underline{t}\underline{s}\bar{\imath}n^i$ ; acc. pl. चेन्यन्  $\underline{t}\underline{s}\bar{e}nyan$ ; ag. pl. चेन्यौ  $\underline{t}\underline{s}\bar{e}nyau$ .

[The word न्यूल् nyūlu, blue, however, has ī throughout. Thus, gen. sg. नीलुक् nīlyuku; instr. sg. नील स्तिन् nīli sūtin; acc. pl. नील्यन् nīlyan; ag. pl. नील्यो nīlyau.

So also in यून्  $yy\bar{u}t^u$ , how much; त्यून्  $ty\bar{u}t^u$ , so much; यून्  $y\bar{u}t^u$ , this much; change the यू  $y\bar{u}$  to  $\bar{\imath}$  throughout (ii. iii. 27). Thus, योति  $y\bar{\imath}t^i$ , how many (nom. pl.); नौित  $t\bar{\imath}t^i$ ; ईति  $\bar{\imath}t^i$ , pr.  $y\bar{\imath}t^i$ .]

The ज  $\bar{u}$  in कूत्  $k\bar{u}t^u$ , how many? (ii. iii. 25, 26) becomes ज  $\bar{v}$ , in all cases except the nominative singular. In the obl. cases of the plural, it may optionally become  $\hat{v}$  ai. Thus—

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

Nom. कूनु  $k\bar{u}t^u$ .

Acc.

कूतिम् kūtis.

Ag. कूर्ति  $k\bar{u}t^{i}$ .

कूति  $k\bar{u}t^i$ .

क्रूत्यन् kūtyan or केत्यन् kaityan.

क्रूत्यौ kūtyau or कत्यौ kaityau.

Its fem. is  $\sqrt[4]{q}$   $k\bar{u}\underline{t}\underline{s}^{\bar{u}}$ .

The word कूँ इ $k\tilde{u}h$ , or काँ इ $k\tilde{a}h$ , a certain person, is declined as a feminine ending in a consonant (ii. iii. 29).

# THIRD DECLENSION.

Feminine nouns ending in  $\xi$  i-mātrā,  $\xi$  i-mātrā, or  $\xi$  i.

पूरिष pūthi, a book.

(a). Nouns ending in  $\xi$  i-mātrā.

Nom. पूचि pūthi (ii. i. 9). पोथा pōthĕ (11, 33).
Acc. पोथा pōthĕ (21, 33, पोथान् pōthyan (12, 38).
38, 40).

पूर्व pūthi (39).

Gen. पोष्य इंद्  $p\bar{o}th\check{e}$  handu (42).

Loc. 1. पोष्य प्यद्  $p\bar{o}th\breve{e}$   $py\breve{a}th$ , &c. (52, 53).

 $\mathrm{Dat.}\ 1.$  पोष्य कित्  $par{o}threve{e}$   $kyut^{u}$   $(54,\,55).$ 

Concom. पोष्य स्ट्रीतन्  $p\bar{o}th\check{e}$   $s\bar{u}tin$  (60).

पोथ्य  $p\bar{o}th\breve{e}$  (39).

पोष्यम् इंन्ट्  $p\bar{o}thyan\ hand^u\ (42)$ .

पोथ्यन् घड्  $p\bar{o}th\ yan\ pyățh\ (52$ 53).

पोथ्यन् कित्  $p\bar{o}thyan\ kyut^u$  (54, 55).

पोय्यन् स्रितन् pōthyan sūtin (60).

Agent. पोचि pōthi (6, 56).

Instr. पोथि स्ट्रीतन्  $p\bar{o}thi$   $s\bar{u}tin$  (33, 59).

पोथ्य इन्दि स्रंतिन्  $p\bar{o}th\breve{e}$  handi  $s\bar{u}tin$  (61).

Dat. 2. **पोश्यि पुद्ध**  $p\bar{o}thi$   $pu\underline{t}shy$  (63).

पोथ्य हन्दि पुश् pōthĕ handi putshy (63).

Abl. पोथि निम  $p\bar{o}thi \ nic^a$  (65).

पोथ्यो pōthyau (56; i. 4).

पोर्थी स्ट्रेतिन् pothyau sūtin (59).

पोष्यन् इन्दि स्निन् pōthyan handi sūtin (61).

पोथ्यौ अन्द्र  $p\bar{o}thyau\ and r^a\ (57)$ .

पोथ्यो पुद्ध pōthyau putshy (33, 63).

पोथ्यन् इन्दि पुश्च् pōthyan handi putshy (63).

पोथ्यो निम  $p\bar{o}thyau \ nic^a \ (65)$ .

Similarly are declined, ज़ूरि  $\tilde{n}\tilde{u}r^{i}$ , a hoof; खीति  $kh\tilde{\iota}t^{i}$ , a field; चीरि  $c\tilde{\iota}r^{i}$ , a lottery ticket.

If the penultimate of a feminine word contains the vowel  $\bar{u}$ , that  $\bar{u}$  becomes  $\bar{o}$  in all cases except the nominative singular. Thus  $\mathbf{q}[\mathbf{q} \ p\bar{u}th^{\dagger}]$  a book; nom. pl.  $\mathbf{q}[\mathbf{q} \ p\bar{u}th^{\dagger}]$  (33).

So also a penultimate i becomes a e in the same circumstance Thus खीति khīti, a field; nom. pl. खेत्य khētě. The word चीरि cīri, a lottery-ticket or slip, does not, however, change its long  $\bar{\imath}$ , and its nom. pl. is चीर्य cīrĕ (33).

(b). Nouns ending in  $\sigma$   $\bar{u}$ -matra.

कूक kūrā, a girl.

कूरू kūr<sup>ū</sup> (ii. i. 9). कोर्च kōrĕ (11, 30, 33). Nom.

कोर्य kōrĕ (21, 33, 38, कोर्यन kōryan (12, 30, 33, 38). Acc. 40).

कूरू kūrā (39).

Gen. (42).

Loc. 1. (52, 53).

Dat. 1. (54, 55).

Concom. (60).

Agent.

कोरि स्तिन् kori satin Instr. (6, 30, 59).

कोर्य इन्दि स्तिन् korë handi sūtin (61).

कोरि चन्द्र köri andro Loc. 2. (57).

Dat. 2. कोरि पुष् kori putshy (63).

> कोर्य इन्दि पुच् körë handi putshy (63).

कोरि निम köri niçe Abl. -(65).

कोर्थ körĕ (39).

कोर्य चन्दु körë handu कोर्यन् इन्दु köryan handu.

कोर्य पाउ korë pyäth, &c. कोर्यन् पाउ koryan pyäth, &c. (52, 53).

कोर्य कितु köre kyut<sup>u</sup> कोर्यन् कितु köryan kyut<sup>u</sup> (54, 55).

कोर्थ स्ट्रीतन् körë satin कोर्यन् स्ट्रीतन् köryan satin (60).

कोरि kōri (6, 56). कोर्यी kōryau (56, 30; i. 4).

कोर्यी स्तिन् köryau sūtin (33, 59).

कोर्यन् इन्दि स्रतिन् koryan handi sūtin (61).

कोर्यी चन्द्र kōryau andra (57).

कोची पुच्च köryau putshy (63).

कोर्यन् इन्दि पुष्यु köryan handi putshy (63).

कोर्यी निम köryau niça (65).

J. 1. 8

Similarly are declined  $\forall z pat^{\bar{u}}$ , a tablet;  $\forall z hat^{\bar{u}}$ , wood;  $\forall z hat^{\bar{u}}$ , a stalk, especially the non-edible part of asparagus, sugarcane, &c.;  $\forall z had^{\bar{u}}$ , a great woman;  $\forall z had^{\bar{u}}$  (or  $\forall z had^{\bar{u}}$ ) a slender woman;  $\forall z had^{\bar{u}}$ , a branch.

The final  $\bar{u}$ - becomes i (or y) throughout, except in the nom. sg. (30).

All nouns of this declension ending in z  $t^{\bar{u}}$ , z  $t^{h^{\bar{u}}}$ , or z  $d^{\bar{u}}$ , change the consonant to the corresponding palatal, in all cases except the nominative singular. Thus—

Nom. pl.
पच pacĕ.
काच्य kāchĕ.
बच्च bajë.

This change only occurs when the word ends in  $\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$  (22). It does not occur when it ends in a consonant (26).

If the penultimate of a feminine word contains the vowel  $\bar{u}$ , that  $\bar{u}$  becomes  $\bar{o}$  in all cases except the nom. singular, thus कूड्  $k\bar{u}r^{\bar{u}}$ , a girl, nom. pl. कोर्थ  $k\bar{o}r\breve{e}$  (33).

The following are exceptions and do not change the  $\bar{u}$  (35). तूं क्  $t\bar{u}r^{\bar{u}}$  cold; दूक्  $d\bar{u}r^{\bar{u}}$ , a lane; मूक्  $m\bar{u}r^{\bar{u}}$ , a twig. Thus from तूं क्  $t\bar{u}r^{\bar{u}}$ ; nom. pl. तूंचे  $t\bar{u}r^{\bar{e}}$ .

So also a penultimate  $\bar{\imath}$  becomes  $\bar{e}$  in the same circumstances. Thus, चीक्  $s\bar{\imath}r^{\bar{u}}$ , a brick, nom. pl. चेचे  $s\bar{e}r\bar{e}$ . The following words (33) however, do not change,—

गोर्  $g\bar{\imath}r^{\bar{u}}$ , red-chalk. Nom. pl. गीर्थ  $g\bar{\imath}r^{\bar{u}}$ .

गोर्  $g\bar{\imath}d^{\bar{u}}$ , child's excrement. गीर्थ  $g\bar{\imath}d^{\bar{u}}$ .

टौँडू  $t^{\bar{u}}t^{\bar{u}}$ , pride. टौँख  $t^{\bar{u}}c^{\bar{u}}$  (22).
टीरू  $t\bar{\imath}r^{\bar{u}}$ , cold-boiled-rice-pudding. टीर्थ  $t\bar{\imath}r^{\bar{u}}$ .

पीरू  $p\bar{\imath}r^{\bar{u}}$ , a table. पीर्थ  $p\bar{\imath}r^{\bar{u}}$ .

Whenever in this declension  $\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$  is preceded by a or  $\bar{a}$ , the a or  $\bar{a}$  become modified to a or  $\bar{a}$  respectively (70). Thus,

Base पर pat, a tablet; nom. sg. पर् patā, but acc. sg. पर्य pacyë; ag. sg. पर्चि paci (i fully pronounced,—not i-mātrā); nom. pl. पर्य pacĕ; acc. pl. पर्च pacyan; ag. pl. पर्ची pacyau.

So,—Base माज्  $m\bar{a}j$ , a mother; nom. sg. माज्य  $m\bar{a}j^{\bar{u}}$ ; but acc. sg. माज्य  $m\bar{a}j\check{e}$ .

Again; Base, काउ  $k\bar{a}th$ , wood; nom. sg. काउ  $k\bar{a}th^{\bar{u}}$ ; acc. sg. काछ  $k\bar{a}ch\breve{e}$ .

# (c). Nouns ending in $\mathfrak{A}$ .

Similarly are declined all feminine nouns in  $\mathbf{a}$ , thus  $\mathbf{n}$   $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{n}$ ,  $\mathbf{n$ 

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

Nom. म्यांज्  $my\bar{a}\tilde{n}$ .

म्याञ myāñĕ.

Acc. म्याञ myāñĕ.

म्याञ्न् myāñan.

Ag. म्याञ्ज myāñi.

म्याञ्जी myāñau.

The vowel is only modified in the nom. sing. So also আৰু  $cy\bar{a}\tilde{n}$  thine (fem.); ধার  $s\bar{a}\tilde{n}$ , our (fem.) (ii. iii. 11 and ff).

As the semivowel य ya cannot, as a rule, immediately follow च  $\underline{ts}$ ,  $\underline{tsh}$ , or  $\underline{s}$ , z, when a noun ends in  $\underline{t}$   $\underline{tsu}$ ,  $\underline{tsh}$ , or  $\underline{s}$ , z, the  $\underline{u}$  ya is elided in declension. Thus  $\underline{t}$   $\underline{s}$   $\underline{matsu}$ , mad, (feminine): nom. pl.  $\underline{ts}$   $\underline{matsu}$ , not  $\underline{tsu}$   $\underline{matsu}$ .  $\underline{s}$   $\underline{tsh}$   $\underline{u}$ , a small bag: pl.  $\underline{s}$   $\underline{tsh}$   $\underline{u}$   $\underline{u}$ 

# FOURTH DECLENSION.

Nouns ending in  $\triangleleft a$ , or a consonant.

(a). Nouns ending in w a चाञ्च bĕñĕ, a sister.

ब्यज़ bě $ilde{ ext{n}}$ ĕ (1). यज़ běñě (ii. i. 1). Nom.

ब्यञ् beñe (38, 40, 39). ब्यञ्जन् beñan (38). Acc.

च्यञ् bĕñĕ (39).

याञ् उन्दु bene handu याञ्न उन्दु benan handu (42). Gen. (42).

चाञ् पाठ् bĕñĕ pyățh यञ्ज् णाउँ beñan pyäth, &c. Loc. 1. (52, 53).(52, 53).

यञ् कितु bĕñĕ kyutu च्यञ्ज्नम् कितु beñan kyutu (54, 55). Dat. 1. (54, 55).

यञ्जन स्तिन् beñan sūtin (60). च्यञ् स्तिन् bene sūtin Concom. (60).

च्यञ्जि beni (56; i. 4). च्यञ्जी benau (56, i. 4). Agent.

चिन् स्तिन् beni sūtin बाज़ी स्तिन् beñau sūtin (59). Instr. (59).

handi sūtin (61).

याज़ दिन्द स्तिन् bene याज़न् दिन्द स्तिन् benan handi sutin (61).

चित्र चन्द्र bĕñi andro यज़ी धन्द्र beñau andra (57). Loc. 2. (57).

ब्यज़ी पुष्ण् beñau putshy (63). Dat. 2. च्याञ्ज पुष्य beni putshy (63).

> यञ् सन्दि पुष्यु bĕñĕ handi यञ्न् इन्दि पुछ् beñan handi putshy. putshy (63).

याञ्ज निम् bĕñi niça (65). यज़ी निए benau niça (65). Abl.

(b). Nouns ending in a consonant.

माल māl, a garland.

Nom. माल् māl (ii. i. 10). माल mäla (11).

मालि māli (37, 38, मालन mālan (12, 38). Acc. 40).

मास् māl (39).

माल māla (39).

Gen. (42).

मासि चन्दु māli hạndu मासन् चन्दु mālan hạndu (42).

Loc. 1. &c., (52, 53).

मास्ति पाठ् māli pyățh, मासन् पाठ् mālan pyățh, &c., (52, 53).

मासि कित् māli kyuta Dat. 1. (54, 55).

मालन् कितु mālan kyutu,

Concom. **(60)**.

मालि स्तिन् māli sūtin मालन् स्तिन् mālan sūtin (60).

मानि māli (56).

मानो mālau (56).

मालि स्तिन् māli sūtin Instr. (59).

मास्ती स्त्रीतन् mālau sūtin (59).

handi sūtin (61).

मालि इन्दि स्रितिन् māli मालन् इन्दि स्रितिन् mālan handi sūtin (61).

मालि चन्द्र māli andro Loc. 2 (57).

माली चन्द्र mālau andra (57).

मालि पुछ् māli putshy Dat. 2 (63).

माली पुश्च mālau putshy (63).

मालि इन्दि पुक् māli handi putshy (63).

मालन् इन्दि पुछा mālan handi putshy (63).

मालि निम māli niço Abl. (65).

माली निम mālau niço (65).

Similarly are declined क्रक् krak, a loud noise; नोर्ज nārij, a conduit; ज़ंग् zang, a thigh.

Note that when a noun ends in कk, च्c, च्ts, रt, तt or पp, these letters are aspirated in the nom. sing. (66, 67); thus—

	Nom. sg.	but Nom. pl.
क्रक् krak, a loud noise.	क्रख् kräkh.	म्रक kraka.
रच् rats, abrus precatorius.	₹æ rătsh.	रच ra <u>ts</u> a.
च्हेच् <u>rts</u> , a sub-caste.	To rtsh.	न्टच् <u>१ ६</u> ८ व.
नट् nat, trembling.	नड् nățh.	नट nața.
वत् wat, a road.	वय् wăth.	वत $wat^a$ .
चाप् $\underline{ts}\bar{a}p$ , food.	चाफ् tsāph.	चाप tsāpa.

The aspiration, being at the end of a word, is barely audible, but it affects the preceding vowel. It only occurs in the nominative singular.

This aspiration does not occur if a final  $\tau$  tor  $\tau$  to  $\tau$  forms part (either the first or second member) of a compound consonant (even when a short a is inserted to aid pronunciation) (68): thus;—

Nom. sg.

बत्च batac, a duck.

.बत्च् batac (elsewhere spelled

बत्चू  $bat^ac^{\bar{u}}$ , see p. 32).

ष्यक्च bŏkats, a female puppy.1

ब्बंब bökats.

मक्च makats, an axe.

मक्च makats.

नस् nast, nose.

नस nast.

Other compounds are, however, aspirated. Thus,—

Nom. sg.

Nom: pl.

रेम्प् rēmp, a little.

रेम्फ rēmph.

रेम्प  $r\bar{e}mp^a$ .

चाम्प् tsāmp, consolation. चाम्प् tsāmph.

चाम्य tsampa.

The word ज़ाम्  $z\bar{a}m$ , a husband's sister, is irregular (71). In all cases, except the nominative singular, it becomes ज़ोम्  $z\bar{o}m$ , and drops every vowel in the terminations. Thus; acc. sg. ज़ोम्  $z\bar{o}m$ ; ag. sg.

1 So Içvara-kaula. Mr. H. Knowles informs me that this word means the young of any animal.

ज़ोस्  $z\bar{o}m$ ; nom. pl. ज़ोस्  $z\bar{o}m$ ; acc. pl. ज़ोस्न्  $z\bar{o}m^a n$ ; ag. pl. ज़ोस्न्  $z\bar{o}m^a v$ ; instr. sg. ज़ोस् स्ट्रीतन्  $z\bar{o}m$   $s\bar{u}tin$ ; gen. sg. ज़ोस् सन्द्  $z\bar{o}m$   $hand^a$ , &c.

The word मूँष् műs (ii. iii. 28), a buffalo-cow, changes ज ū to ai in all cases except the nom. sg., thus—

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

Nom. मूँप mữs.

मैंष maĩsa.

Acc. मैं पि maisi.

मैंषन maisan.

Ag. मैं पि maisi.

मैं षौ maisau.

The word कूँ इ  $k\tilde{u}h$  or काँ इ  $k\tilde{a}h$ , any one, some one, though of both genders, is always declined as a feminine, in the sg. number. It changes क  $\bar{u}$  and बा  $\bar{a}$  to  $\bar{v}$  ai and इ h to  $\bar{v}$  s in all cases except the nom. sg. (ii. iii. 29). It becomes के  $\bar{v}$   $k\bar{e}nts$  in the plural (ii. iii. 30) and is then declined as a masculine.

Thus,—

SINGULAR.

PLURAL,

Nom. দুঁহ  $k\tilde{a}h$ , কাঁহ  $k\tilde{a}h$ .

के•च् kēnts.

Acc. कैंसि kaĩsi.

केन्चन kēntsan.

Ag. कैं ि kaîsi.

केन्ची kentsau.

Irregular Feminine Nouns, ending in Consonants.

रात् rāt, night.

राध rāth (ii. i. 10, 66). रांचू rāts (16, 23).

रांचू rāts (16, 23, 38, रांचून rāts in (14, 16, 23, 38). Acc. 40).

राय rāth (39).

रांचू rātsa (39).

Gen. (42).

राम् इन्द्र rāts handu राम्न इन्द्र rāts un handu (42).

Loc. 1. &c. (52, 53).

राचू मझ rātsa manz, राचून मझ rātsan manz, &c. (52, 53).

Dat. 1. (54, 55).

रोचू कित् rāts kyutu रोचून् कित् rāts n kyutu (54, 55)

Concom. (60).

राम् स्रतिन् rātsa satin राम्न स्रतिन् rātsan satin.

Agent. रांचू rātsu (7, 17). रांचूव् rātsu (20, 56).

रोचू स्रितन् rāts sātin Instr. (59).

र चून स्ट्रिन ग्वंts v sūtin (59).

handi sūtin (61).

रांचू इन्दि स्निन् rātsa रांचून् इन्दि स्निन् rātsan handi sūtin (61).

Loc. 2. (57).

राच् अन्द्र rātsa andra राच्य अन्द्र rātsav andra.

रांचू पुर्व rālsa putshy Dat. 2. (63).

राच्य प्रम् rātsav putshy (63).

रोन् इन्दि पुश् न्वंधः handi putshy (63).

राम्न इन्दि पुश् rātsan handi putshy (63).

Abl. (65).

रांचू निम rātse niçe रांचूव निम rātsev niçe (65).

This group of irregular nouns consists of most feminine nouns in  $\overline{q}$  t,  $\overline{q}$  th,  $\overline{q}$  d,  $\overline{q}$  n,  $\overline{q}$  h, and certain nouns in  $\overline{q}$  l. In all these cases the final consonant is changed as follows:—

त् t	becomes	च् <u>t</u> 8
थ् th		tsh
<b>ર</b> d		ज़् $z$
न् n		ञ् ñ
₹ h		श् ६
		ল্ $j$

e.g., रात्  $r\bar{a}t$ , night; Nom. pl. राज्  $r\bar{a}t\dot{s}^a$  (23, 14, 16). जिथ्  $k\breve{o}th$ , a hank; जिथ्  $kwatsh^a$  (23, 14, 16). पंज  $granz^a$  (23, 14, 16). रंग्  $y\bar{v}ran$ , an anvil; रंग्  $\bar{v}ran^a$  (23, 14, 16). काइ  $k\bar{a}h$ , eleventh lunar day; कांग्र  $k\bar{a}c^a$  (19, 14, 16). वाज  $w\bar{a}l$ , a hole; वाज  $w\bar{a}j^a$  (27, 14, 16).

Other examples are सत् sat, hope; हान् hān, loss; चामन् tsāman, cheese.

The words in स् l which follow this declension are वास् wāl, a hole (as that of a serpent); पास् sāl, a wife's sister; जास् zāl, a net; कस् kal, thought, consideration; and पास् hāl, a house, a hall (27, 28). The word पास् hāl when it is at the end of a masculine compound is, however, declined regularly; thus माउपास् मन्दर् tsāṭahālas andar (not माउपास पन्दर tsāṭahājā andar,) in the school-house, because माउपास कित्तिकी is masculine (28). The words मुंडस् kuṇḍal, a kind of cup (especially the cup of a portable stove), and कतेस् kartal a sword, may optionally be regular. Thus मुंडम् स्तिन् kuṇḍajā sāṭin or मुंडिस स्तिन् kuṇḍali sāṭin, by the cup, (29).

EXCEPTIONS. The following nouns are however declined regularly (24, 25):—

वत् wat, a road.

सत् lat, a kick.

इत dat, a clod.

चत् thöt, an impediment.

चृत् tsŏt, the anus.

चिन् tsitt, a sprain.

चेत् tsēt, tumbling head over heels.

गृत gat, a rise in a river, a swift flood.

पौत् ptt, a trifle.

तोंत् tot, a beak.

क्य kăth, a story.

बर्थ vyăth, the river Jhelum.

खन khon, the elbow.

नम् tan, the body.

नान्  $n\bar{a}n$ , the navel.

खन् sŏn, a co-wife.

दन् han, a little.

बन् ban, a heap, pile.

Thus वित स्रतिन् wati sūtin, not वेचू स्रतिन् wats sūtin.

It must be remembered that the  $\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$  modifies a preceding a to a, and  $\bar{a}$  to  $\bar{a}$  (71). When final it is not pronounced. When it precedes a consonant it is pronounced like a short German  $\ddot{u}$ . Thus  $\sqrt{q} r \bar{a} t s^{\bar{a}} v$  is pronounced something like, German,  $r\ddot{o}t s\ddot{u}v$ .

It must also be remembered that words ending in t form the nominative singular in th (66). Thus the nom. sg. of रात्  $r\bar{a}t$ , night, is राष्ट्र  $r\bar{a}th$ , and of बत् wat, a road, is **वष** wath.

The words यह yad, belly; गाव gav, a cow; बर thar, the back; कड

köth, a fragrant root, Aucklandia Costus; वह wad, discount; are similarly declined, except that they do not change their final consonant. Thus येड्र स्रोतन yad sūtin, by the belly (7). Nom. pl. येड्र yad (17).

The word गान्  $g\bar{a}v$ , abovementioned, changes its  $\bar{a}$  to  $\bar{o}$  in all cases except the nom. sg. (72); thus, acc. sg. गोन्  $g\bar{o}v^{\bar{u}}$ ; ag. sg. गोन्  $g\bar{o}v^{\bar{u}}$ ; nom. pl. गोन्  $g\bar{o}v^{\bar{u}}$ ; acc. pl. गोन्न  $g\bar{o}v^{\bar{u}}n$ ; ag. pl. गोन्न  $g\bar{o}v^{\bar{u}}v$ .

# E. Composition and Concordance.

Īçvara-kaula, in his  $K\bar{a}çm\bar{v}ra$ -çabdāmṛta, treats of the two subjects forming the title of this section, in the  $Sam\bar{a}sa$ -prakriyā, the third portion of his grammar. He treats an adjective in concord with a noun as an example of a  $karmadh\bar{a}raya$ , or adjectival compound. Really, as will be seen, it is not a compound at all, but an instance of syntactical agreement. Just as bonus homo, in Latin means a good man, and boni hominis, of a good man, so  $bad^{\bar{w}}$   $lar^{\bar{w}}$ , in Kāçmīrī means a large house, and baji lari pyaṭha, means from a great house.

In the case of all compounds and concordances the postposition denoting the case is omitted after every member of the compound, except the last, but each member is inflected as if to receive the postposition (iii. 2). Thus, इन् गुर् chatu guru means, a white horse. The instrumental plural of इन् chatu is इन्हों स्निन् chatyau sātin, and of गुर् guru is गुर्यो स्निन् guryau sātin, but the instrumental plural of इन् गुर् chatu guru, is इन्हों स्निन् chatyau guryau sātin, not इन्हों स्निन् गुर्यो स्निन् chatyau sātin guryau sātin, by white horses. When there is no postposition these remarks, of course, do not apply. Thus the accusative singular is इनिस् गुर्र chatis guris, and the nom. pl. is इन्हिंगुर्र chati guri.

Karmadhāraya or adjectival compounds are expressed in Kāçmīrī by an adjective agreeing with its substantive in gender, number and case. The above rule about postpositions must be applied. Thus बंद्र यार् baḍu dyār (masc.), great wealth; बचन् यार्न् हुद् ज़ेनान् baḍyan dyāran chuh zēnān, he is earning great wealth (acc. pl.); म्बचि चृचि स्तिन् mŏci tsŏci sūtin, by a thick (म्बट्ट् moṭu) cake (चृट्ट tswaṭu, fem.); बिक्ट कोरि पुक्ष trichi kōri putshy, for a clever (युख् tryukhu, fem. चिक्ट trichu) girl (कूक् kūru); बिज किर पाउ baji lari pyaṭha from the big (बंद्र baḍu) house (चिक्ट विवास); बज्य पेझ् चेन्द्र bajĕ granzu handu, of the big counting (पन्द् grand); बिज्य ग्रिस् पाउ baḍis guris pyāṭh, on the great horse (गृद् guru). And so on.

In Copulative (dvandva) compounds each member of the compound is declined separately, the above rule as to post-positions being observed. Thus, base नाप् tāp, light (masc.); गट gata, darkness (fem.). sg. of नाप  $t\bar{a}p$  is नाफ  $t\bar{a}ph$  and the instr. sg. is नाप स्ट्रेनिन्  $t\bar{a}p^a$   $s\bar{u}tin$ . So from गट gața, the nom. sg. is गट gața, and the instr. sg. गटि स्तिन् The compound noun, 'light and darkness' is nom. sg. नाम् गट  $t\bar{a}ph$ - $gat^a$ ; instr. sg. नाप-गटि स्निन्  $t\bar{a}p^a$ -gati  $s\bar{u}tin$ , and so on. Again बाह्  $w\bar{a}r^{\bar{u}}$  (fem.) is a garden; कुलु  $kul^u$  (masc.) is a tree; फल् phal (masc.) is fruit; and ज़ल् zal (masc.) is water. Making these into a copulative compound we have in the dative sg. वारि-कुलि-फल-ज़ल पुछ wāri-kuli-phala-zala putshy, for the garden, the tree, the fruit, and the water. Sometimes each member is put in the plural, the whole collective idea being plural though each member of the compound is properly Thus माज mājū, a mother, nom. pl. माज्य mājë; कूक् in the singular.  $k\bar{u}r^{\bar{u}}$ , a daughter, nom. pl. कोर्थ  $k\bar{o}r\check{e}$ . Hence माज्य-कोर्थ  $m\bar{a}j\check{e}$ - $kor\check{e}$ , mother and daughter. So मांचि पुश्र् māli-puthar, father and son (मोलु mōlu, a father; पुश्र् puthar, a son); इग्र-न्वष haça-nŏṣa, mother-in-law (इम् haç) daughter in-law (न्वष् nŏs); ज़ोम्-काकज़ zōm-kākañĕ, husband's sister (ज़ाम् zām) and brother's wife (कार्काञ् kākañ); पच-कूच pacĕ-kūcĕ, board (पंट्र  $pat^{\bar{u}}$ ) and wood (कूट्र  $k\bar{u}t^{\bar{u}}$ ).

In **Tatpurusa** or appositional compounds, the first member usually takes the form which the word adopts in the agent, the  $\neg n$  of the agent of the 1st declension, being dropped. We may also say that the first member of the compound is put in the genitive, the post-position being dropped, and y being changed to i (iii. 5).

Thus, স্থাকি-অম্ grāki-khaç, the cut of a knife (সাৰ্ grākh, fem.).

टोपि-फंजु  $!\bar{o}pi$ - $phal^u$ , the border of a cap (टूपि  $t\bar{u}p^i$ , fem.).

सर्प-बय स्ट्रीतन्  $sar^ap^a$ - $bay^a$   $s\overline{u}tin$ , by the fear (बय  $bay^a$ , masc.) of a snake (सर्फ्  $sar^aph$ , masc.).

राज़-न्यचिवि पुश्  $r\bar{a}z^a$ - $n\bar{e}civi\ pu\underline{t}shy$ , for the son (न्यशुद्  $n\bar{e}cyuv^u$ ) of the king (राज़  $r\bar{a}z^a$ ).

बट-कोर्य उन्ह  $bat^a$ - $k\bar{o}r\check{e}$   $hand^u$ , of the daughter (क्रूक्  $k\bar{u}r^{\bar{u}}$ ) of the brāhmaṇa (बट  $bat^a$ ).

स्तन-डब ध्रन्  $s\breve{o}n^a$ - $dab^a$  an, bring the box (डब  $dab^a$ , masc.) of gold (स्तम्  $s\breve{o}n$ , masc.), i.e., the gold box.

म्यचि-क्षां यव mětsi-photu thav, put down a basket (क्षां photu masc.) (full) of earth (म्यांच् myatsu).

# Irregular formations.

1. When the word पोज़  $p\bar{o}\tilde{n}^u$ , water, forms the second member of one of these compounds, it becomes বালু  $w\bar{o}\tilde{n}^u$  (iii. 6). Thus,—

गंग-वोञ्जू  $ga\eta g^a$ - $w\bar{o}\tilde{n}^u$ , the water of the Ganges.

यथ-वोञ्ज्  $vyath^a$ - $w\bar{o}\tilde{n}^u$ , the water of the Jhelum.

श्रीन-वोञ्जू  $\varsigma \bar{\imath} n^a$ - $w \bar{o} \tilde{n}^u$ , snow-water.

बुग-बोञ्जू  $wug^a$ - $w\bar{o}\tilde{n}^u$ , flood-water.

माङ्-वोञ्ज्  $m\bar{q}r^{\bar{u}}$ - $w\bar{o}\tilde{n}^u$ , the water of the Mär [see p. 67].

क्रीरि-वोञ्ज्  $kr\bar{\imath}r^i$ - $w\bar{o}\tilde{n}^u$ , well (क्रूप्रक्  $kry\bar{u}r^u$ , masc.) water.

रूद-वोञ्जू  $r\bar{u}d^a$ - $w\bar{o}\tilde{n}^u$ , rain-water.

नाग-वोञ्ज्  $n\bar{a}g^a$ - $w\bar{o}\tilde{n}^u$ , spring-water.

2. The words पोञ्च  $p\bar{o}\tilde{n}^u$ , water, दाञ  $d\tilde{a}\tilde{n}\tilde{e}$  (masc.) rice, वोञ्च  $w\bar{o}\tilde{n}^{\bar{u}}$ , a merchant, and others, become पाँ  $p\tilde{a}$ , दाँ  $d\tilde{a}$ , and वाँ  $w\tilde{a}$  respectively, when (iii. 7, 8) they are first members of one of these compounds.

Thus,-

पाँ-चख्  $p\tilde{a}$ -trăkh, a measure ( $4\frac{3}{4}$  sērs) of water.

पाँ-नंदु pa-natu, a water-bucket.

दां-खार् da-khār, a measure (16 trăkhs) of rice.

दां-मं तृ  $d\tilde{a}$ -phot<sup>u</sup>, a basket (full) of rice.

वां-यंसु  $w\tilde{a}$ - $dyal^u$ , the merchant's straw.

वाँ-कूक्  $w\tilde{a}$ - $k\bar{u}r^{\bar{u}}$ , the merchant's daughter.

3. The  $\Psi p$  of the word  $\Psi \psi \chi path^a r$ , a leaf, becomes  $\Psi w$  in masculine compounds (iii. 9). Thus,—

बोज़ि-वंष्र् boñi-wathar, plane-tree-leaves.

पोष-वंशर pōṣa-wathar, a flower-petal.

ख्या-वेथ्र् khyalla-wathar, a leaf of the lotus-grass.

चाक-वंष्र् hāka-wathar, spinach-leaves.

When, however, the compound is feminine, the word पंश् pathar, becomes पंत् patar. Thus

मुजि-पेत्र् muji-patar (fem.), a radish-leaf.

ग्वम्जि-पंत्र् gŏgaji-patar (fem.), a turnip-leaf.

4. The word  $\exists z tswat^{\bar{u}}$ , a cake (fem.), is restricted in composition to cakes made of grain (iii. 12). Thus

लम्ब-चंट्र tomala-tswata, rice-cake.

कन्क-च्रु  $kan^ak^a$ -tswat<sup>a</sup>, wheat-cake.

बुष्ति-च्टू wuski-tswatū, barley-cake.

If not made of grain, the word wand, must be substituted.

Thus

दूल-म्बंद्  $th\bar{u}l^a$ - $mwand^{\bar{u}}$ , egg-cake.

नेदुरि-म्बंडू nadari-mwandā, lotus-stalk-cake.

च्रामञ्च्र क्ष्यं क्ष्यं क्ष्यं क्ष्यं (also written, च्रामञ् क्ष्यं क्

भद्रक्-म्बंड adrak-mwandā, ginger-cake [apparently irregular].

The masculine form  $k \in mond^u$ , can, however, be used for grain cakes, thus

त्वम्ल-म्बंड्  $t \breve{o} m^a l^a - mond^a$ , rice-cake, (त्वमुल्  $t \breve{o} mul$ , rice).

चब-म्बंड्  $ab^a$ -moṇ $d^u$ , a cake of parched meal.

Bahu-vrīhi or relative compounds are similarly formed. When formed of an adjective and a substantive, the adjective is usually put last (iii. 13). Examples are

यड-बंड् yaḍa-baḍu (not यंड्-बंड् yaḍā-baḍā, as we might expect), big-bellied, Skr. bṛhad-udara, quasi udara-bṛhat.

दारि-च्युह्  $d\bar{a}ri$ - $zy\bar{u}th^u$ ,  $\log$  (च्युह्  $zy^ath^u$ ) bearded (द्रांक्  $d\bar{a}r^{\bar{u}}$ , fem., a beard).

कन-चंद्र kano-tsotu having the ear (कन् kan, masc.) cut (चंद्र tsotu).

ह्नि-बुण् hūn'-buthu, dog (ह्रम् hūnu, a dog) faced (जुण् buthu, a face).

When one member of the compound is a numeral, it is put first, thus

दु-वर्ष् du-waharu, occurring every two years.

सत-बोच् sata-bōtsa, having a family of seven.

पाँच-धतुर् pātso-potur, having five sons.

Alliterative compounds (which are always feminine) are also classed as bahu-vrīhis by Īçvara-kaula (iii. 14); thus

इल-इल thöla-thöl, mutual pushing with horns.

टप-टफ् ṭapo-ṭăph, mutual kicking.

दुंक देख् thuka-thukh, mutual pushing with horns.

चप-चफ् capa-caph, tooth against tooth.

When an adjective is used as an adverb, its form is not changed (v. 5). It stands in the masculine singular.

Thus,—

ग्वंब ग्रंब कुर पकान्  $gob^u$   $gob^u$  chuh  $pak\bar{a}n$ , he is going slowly.

चंतुर् (or चंतुर् चंतुर्) खावान कुर् tsatur (or tsatur tsatur) khyawān chuh, he is eating quickly.

त्वंत करान् कुइ lotu karān chuh, he is doing slowly.

### F. Numerals.

The following are the Kāçmīrī numerals from one to ten millions, as written down for me by my Paṇḍit. They differ in several respects from those given by Wade.

CARDINALS.

ORDINALS.

1 खख् $\ddot{a}kh$ .

2 ज़ुह  $z^ah$ .

3 विड् trih or यह trĕh.

4 चोर् <u>ts</u>ōr.

5 पांच्य pānts or पांच्य pānts.

6 ष**स्** *ṣah*.

7 सथ् săth.

8 ऐंड aith.

9 नव nav.

10 दह् dah.

11 काइ  $k\bar{a}h$ .

12 बाह् bāh.

13 च्वाइ truwāh.

14 च्दाह् tsŏdāh.

15 पन्दाइ pandāh.

चकुम्  $akyum^u$  or म्वडञ्जन  $greve{o}dara{n}uk^u$ .

द्वयुम् dŏyumu.

चयुम् trĕyum™.

चर्म tsūryumu.

पूर्व्युम् puntsyumu.

षयुम् şayumu.

चत्युमु satyumu.

रेशुमु aithyumu.

नयुम् navyumu.

दच्चम dahyumu.

का ह्युम kāhyumu.

बाह्यम्  $b\bar{a}hyum^u$ .

न्वास्त्रम् truwāhyum".

च्दोत्त्रम् tsödahyumu.

पन्दोच्युम pandāhyumu.

16 षुराह् surāh.

17 सदाइ sadāh.

18 चरदाह् aradāh.

19 कुनवुद् kunawuh.

20 बुस् wuh.

21 श्रवनुह् akawuh.

22 ज़्तोबुद् zatōwuh.

23 यवुद् trĕwuh.

24 च्वुड् tsŏwuh.

25 पून्चूह्  $p\bar{u}nts\bar{u}h$ .

26 षवु इawuh.

27 सतोबुद् satōwuh.

28 रेडोबुर् aithowuh.

29 कुनन्ह् kunatrah.

30 वृह् trah.

31 खकच्ह् akatrah.

32 दयन्ह् dŏyatrah.

33 त्ययन्ड् tĕyatrah.

34 च्यन्स्  $\underline{ts} \breve{o} yatr^a h$ .

35 पांन्च्च् pāntsatrah or पान्च्च्ड् pāntsatrah.

36 षयच्ह् sayatrah.

37 सतन्ड् satatrah.

38 चरच्ह् aratrah.

39 कुनतांजिइ kunatājih.

40 चृतजिस् tsatajih.

J. 1. 10

षुरां ह्युम् surāhyumu.

सद्दिम् sadāhyumu.

बरदो ह्युम् aradāhyumu.

कुनवुद्धम् kunawuhyumª.

बुद्धम् wuhyumu.

चनवुद्युम् akawuhyum.

ज़्तोबुद्धुम्  $z^a t \bar{o} w u h y u m^u$ .

यवुद्धम् trëwuhyum".

चंबुद्युम् tsöwuhyum".

पूर्वाम् pūntsāhyuma.

षवुद्युम् şawuhyum\*.

सतोबुह्युम् satōwuhyum\*.

पेडो बुद्धुम् aithowuhyumu.

कुनन्द्युम् kunatrahyumu.

न्ह्यम् trahyumu.

खकन्द्यम् akatrahyumu.

इयन्ह्यम् dŏyatrehyum\*.

त्ययन्त्रुम् tĕyatrahyumu.

च्यव्ह्युम् tsŏyatrahyumu.

पन्चित्रम् pāntsatrahyumu.

षयन्ह्यम् sayatrahyum".

सतव्ह्युम् satatrahyum™.

चरन्ह्यम् aratrahyumu.

कुनत जिल्लुम् kunatājihyumu.

च्तजिद्युम् tsatajihyum"

41 अकर्ताजिह् akutājih.

42 द्वयतांजिह döyatājih.

43 त्ययताजिह् tĕyatājih.

44 च्यताजिस् tsŏyatājih.

45 पन्निताजिस् pāntsatājih.

46 षयतांजिइ sayatājih.

47 मतनाजिइ satatājih.

48 धरतां जिस् aratājih.

49 कुनवद्धाह् kunawanzāh.

50 पन्चा ह् pantsāh.

51 खनवड़ार्  $akawanz\bar{a}h$ .

52 दवझार dŏwanzāh.

53 च्वज्ञाह् trawanzāh.

54 च्वज्ञास् tsŏwanzāh.

55 पन्चिवझाच् pāntsawanzāh.

56 षवज्ञार् sawanzāh.

57 सतदज्ञाह् satawanzāh.

58 श्राद् arawanzāh.

59 कुनहैठ् kunahaith.

60 ne çaith or ne çēth.

61 श्वक हैंड akahaith.2

62 इहैंड döhaith.

63 व्हेठ trahaith.

64 च्हेंठ <u>ts</u>ŏhaith.

65 प्रान्चिहें pāntsahaith.

चकतं जिच्चुम् akaṭājihyumu.¹

द्वयत्रां जिन्नुम्  $d\check{o}yat\bar{a}j^ihyum^u$ .

त्ययत्र्रां क्षामु  $teyat\bar{a}j^ihyum^u$ .

च्यत्र्रिचामु  $\underline{ts} \check{o}yat\bar{a}j^ihyum^u$ .

पोक्षत्रिच्चाम् pāntsatājihyumu.

ष्यतर्जित्त्रुम् şayatājihyumu.

सतत जिद्युमु satatājihyumu.

अरतो जिद्युम् aratāji hyumu.

कुनवद्ग्री ह्युमु kunawanzāhyumu.

पन्चा ह्यम् pantsāhyumu.

चकवज्ञां ह्युस् akawanzāhyumu.

दवज्ञांच्यम् dŏwanzāhyumu.

च्वझा ह्युस्  $tr^awanz\bar{a}hyum^n$ .

च्यझा ह्युम् ts ŏwanzāhyumu.

पविच्वद्धाः ह्युम् pāntsawanzāhyumu.

षवज्ञा ह्युसु sawanzāhyumu.

सतवज्ञां ह्यम् satawanzāhyumu.

चरवद्गां ह्युम् arawanzāhyumu.

कुन है युमु kunahaithyum".

शीयुम् çīthyumu.

अकरैयुमु akahai!hyumu.

द्वहैशुमु dŏhaiṭhyumu.

च्हेयुम् trahaithyumu.

च्हेंगुमु tsöhaithyum".

पन्चिहेशुम् pāntsahaithyumu.

1 Sometimes pronounced akatājyumu, and so throughout the forties; except forty-nine.

2 Also pronounced akahāth, akahāthyumu, and so throughout the sixties, except

sixty-nine.

66 ष्हेंद șahaițh.

67 सतस्डेंड् satahaith.

68 चरहैठ arahaith.

69 कुनस्तथ् kunasatäth.

70 सतय् satăth.

71 चनस्तय् akasatăth.

72 दुसतथ् dusatăth.1

73 च्सतथ् trasatăth.

74 च्सतथ् tsŏsatäth.

75 पांच्चसतथ् pāntsasatāth.

76 ष्सतथ् sasatath.

77 सतसतथ् satasatäth.

78 खरमतथ् arasatăth.

79 कुनशीय kunaçīth.

80 शीथ् çīth.

81 चकशीय akaçīth.

82 द्वयमीय dŏyaçīth.

83 ययशीय trĕyaçīth.

84 च्यमीय <u>ts</u>ŏyaçīth.

85 पांन्च्गीय pāntsaçīth.

86 षयशीय sayaçith.

87 सनशीय sataçīth.

88 चरशीय araçīth.

89 कुननमध् kunanamäth.

90 नमथ् namäth.

91 चनमय् akanamäth.

ष्हेशुमु sahaithyumu.

सतद्वेशुमु satahaithyumu.

चरहेगुमु arahaithyumu.

कुनचत्युम् kunasatatyum<sup>u</sup>.

सतत्युमु satatyumu.

अक्सतत्युम् akasatatyumu.

दुसतत्युम् dusatatyum".

च्मतत्युमु trasatatyumu.

च्सतत्युम् ts ŏsatatyumu.

पन्त्रिम् pāntsasatatyumu.

ष्मतत्युम् sasatatyumu.

सतस्तत्युम् satasatatyumu.

ष्यरमतत्युमु arasatatyumu.

क्वनशीत्युम् kunaçītyum".

शीत्युम् çītyumu.

चकशीत्युमु akaçityumu.

द्वयशीत्यम् dŏyaçītyumu.

च्ययशीत्युमु treyaçītyumu.

च्यमीत्युम् tsöyaçītyumu.

पान्च्यीत्युम् pāntsaçītyumu.

षयशीत्युम् sayaçītyumu.

सतशीत्युमु sataçītyumu.

चरशीत्यमु araçītyumu.

कुननमत्युम् kunanamatyumu.

नमत्युमु namatyumu.

चकनमत्युम् akanamatyum™.

<sup>।</sup> Not द्वस्तय् dősatáth, as we might expect.

92 दुनमथ dunamäth.1

93 च्नमथ् tranamäth.

94 च्नमथ् tsönamäth.

95 पांच्चनमध् pāntsanamäth.

96 ष्नमथ् sanamäth.

97 सतनमथ satanamăth.

98 चरनमथ aranamäth.

99 नमानमथ् namānamäth.

100 इथ् hăth.

101 खख्रथ् त खख् ăkh hăth ta ăkh,

and so on.

110 चख्रथ्त दह् ăkh hăth ta dah,

and so on.

200 ज़ह इय  $z^a h h \ddot{a} t h$ .

300 विहय trihath.

400 चोर् इथ् <u>ts</u>ōr hăth.

500 पांच् इथ् pānts hath.

600 षद्य sahath.

700 सथ् इथ् săth hăth

800 ऐंड इथ् aith hath.

900 नव् श्य् nav çăth.

1000 मास् sās.

10000 **च**रवथ् ayŏth.

100000 जब läch.

1,000,000 प्रस्वथ् prayöth.

10,000,000 करोर् körör.

दुनमत्युम् dunamatyumu.

च्नमत्युमु tranamatyumu.

च्नमत्युमु tsönamatyumu.

पन्निमत्युमु pāntsanamatyumu.

ष्नमत्युमु sanamatyumu.

सतनमत्युमु satanamatyumu.

अरनमत्युमु aranamatyumu.

नमानमत्युमु namānamatyumu.

इत्यम् hatyumu.

अख्रथ् त अक्युम् ăkh hăth to akyumo

and so on.

अब् इथ् त द्युम् ăkh hăth to dahyumu

and so on.

दुस्तुमु duhatyumu.

च्हत्युम्  $tr^a hatyum^u$ .

च्हत्यम् <u>ts</u>uhatyumu.

पन्चित्रमु pāntsahatyuma.

षदत्युमु sahatyumu.

चतदत्युम् satahatyum⁴.

रेठ इत्युम् aithahatyumu.

नवग्रत्युम् navaçatyumu:

चोख्यम् sāsyumu.

चय्वत्युमु  $ay \ddot{o}ty um^u$ .

लक्षुम् lachyumu.

प्रस्वत्युम् prayötyumu.

करोयुंमु köröryuma.

चाब् ăkh is one: चाबार् akhāh, or चाबार् खाडा akhāh khandā means 'some one,' or 'about one,' (ii, iii. 38, 45).

1 Not द्वनस्य donamath, as we might expect.

चाल ăkh is thus declined.

चख ăkh. Nom.

खिनस् akis. Acc.

चक्यक akyuku, or चिक् सन्द् aki sandu.

चिति  $ak^i$ .

च्या द  $akh\bar{a}h$  is only used in the nominative (ii. iii. 38).

चकुय् aku-y, fem. चक्य  $ak^{\bar{u}}-y$ , is 'only one.' So also कुन्  $kun^u$ , fem. कुञ्  $ku\tilde{n}$ , means 'only one' (iv. 191).

ज़ह  $z^ah$ , two, becomes द dw in all cases except the nom. pl., and is thus declined (ii. iii. 32, 33).

Sg. (a pair).

Pl. (two).

(जोर  $j\bar{o}r^a$ ). Nom.

লুছ্  $z^a h$ .

(जोरम् jōras). Acc.

द्वन् dwan.

(जोरन् joran). Ag.

दयौ dwayau.

Instr. द्वि स्त्रीतन dwayi sütin द्वि स्तिन dwayau sütin.

(जोर स्रिन jora sūtin).

जोराइ jōrāh, 'any pair,' 'some pair,' or 'about two,' is declined in the plural. Thus जोराही स्रतिन् jorāhau sūtin (ii. iii. 38). जोराह खाडा jorāh khanda, means 'about two, but a little less' (ii. iii. 45). ज़्य za-y, means 'only two.'.

There are two words signifying 'a pair,' (iv. 192). These are इत् hara (pl. इरि hari) and जोर jora or जूरि jūri.

to har" is generally used of things without life; thus,—

बचाई प् dĕjĕharu, a pair of ear pendants.

दूर्देष् dūrahara, a pair of ear rings.

वां सिंहर् wālihara, a pair of rings (वोसु wōla).

पुलक्ष pulahara, a pair of grass sandals.

म्रावहें khrāvaharu, a pair of wooden sandals.

श्वाहर्ष ăkhhạru, one pair; ज्हर्ष् zahhạri, two pairs; श्रह्मि trěhhạri, three pairs.

In the villages we find the word  $\mathbf{z}$   $\mathbf{t}$   $\mathbf{$ 

জাব  $j\bar{o}r^a$  or জুবি  $j\bar{u}r^i$  is used generally of things with life, but not always. Thus,—

म्बत्तजूरि möktajūri, a pair of pearls.

दाँदजूरि  $d\tilde{a}daj\bar{u}r^{i}$ , a pair of bullocks.

कोतर्जूरि kōtarjūri, a pair of pigeons (कोतुर् kōtur, a pigeon).

गुर्जूर gurijūri, a pair of horses (गुर् gura, a horse).

ष्यक्तोर  $akhj\bar{o}r^a$ , one pair; जूर्जोर  $z^ahj\bar{o}r^a$ , two pairs; यह्जोर  $tr\check{e}hj\bar{o}r^a$ , three pairs.

Note that sit  $j\bar{o}r^{a}$  and sit  $j\bar{u}r^{i}$  are not interchangeable.

विद trih, three, is thus declined (ii. iii. 34).

Nom. বিভ্ trih.

Acc. খন্ tryan (trĕn).

Ag. यथी trĕyau

The word नार  $t\bar{a}r^a$  is indefinite, and means 'about three.' निय् tri-y, is 'only three' (ii. iii. 39).

'A group of three,' 'a trio,' is বিভা  $tril^a$ , (masc.), or (iv. 192) বিভা  $tric^a$  (fem.).

So also षद् sah, six (ii. iii. 34).

Nom. षह sah.

Acc. षन् san.

Ag. षयौ sayau.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;About six' is पखाइ sakhāh. 'Only six' is पश् sa-y (ii. iii. 42).

<sup>&#</sup>x27;A group of six' (iv. 192) चक saka. It is also चखाइ sakhāh, and

पखाद् खण्डा sakhāh khandā means 'a group of about six' (ii. iii. 42). The latter usually means a group of a little less than six.

चोर् tsōr, four, is thus declined (ii. iii. 35).

Nom. चोर् <u>t</u>sōr.

Acc. चोरन् tsoran or चन् tson.

Ag. चोरौ tsorau.

च्मर <u>ts</u>ŏmara, (ii. iii. 40), means 'about four,' and चोर्य <u>ts</u>ōra-y is 'only four' (ii. iii. 40).

चाख् <u>tsākh</u> means 'a group of four,' 'a four' (iv. 192). **चाखार्** <u>tsākhāh</u> means 'a group of about four, and **चाखार् खखा** <u>tsākhāh</u> khaṇḍā means 'a group of a little less than four' (ii. iii. 45).

This numeral in composition becomes च <u>ts</u>ŏ. Thus (vide post) च्<u>ग्</u>वय् <u>ts</u>ŏçaway, even the four; च्<u>र</u>ाह् <u>ts</u>ŏdāh, fourteen: च्<u>र</u>ुह् tsŏwuh, twenty-four, and so on.

The word for 'five 'is पांच्च pānts or पांच्च pānts

Nom. पांच् pānts.

Acc. पांच्च् pāntsan.

Ag. पंग्वी patsau.

'About five' is पेश parça, and 'only five' is पांच्य pāntsa-y (ii. iii. 41). पद्म panzu means 'a group of five' (iv. 192). पञ्चाद खाडा panzwāh khandā means 'about five but a little less.'

For 'six,' see under 'three.'

The word for 'seven' is उथ् săth. It is thus declined —

Acc. सतन् satan.

Ag. चती satau.

'About seven' is सटेड satētha. 'Only seven' is सतय sata-y (ii. iii. 43).

संत् satu is a group of seven (iv. 192). मेलाइ खाडा satvāh khandā is 'about seven, but a little less.'

The declension and formation of the remaining numerals is regular.
'About' is signified by adding चमर amara, and 'only' by adding.
चय ay (ii. iii. 44).

Thus ऐंद् aith, (acc. pl. ऐंद्रन् aithan); 'about eight,' ऐंद्रमर aithamara; 'only eight,' ऐंद्रय् aitha-y. ऐंद्र aith', is a group of eight (iv. 192).

ज् $\bar{u}th^i$  (pl.) is groups of eight (e.g. four eights=thirty-two, चोर् ज्ि द्यन्स्  $t\underline{s}\bar{o}r$   $\bar{u}th^i$   $d\check{o}yatr^ah$ ).

नव nav, nine; नवसर navamara, about nine; नवय् nava-y, only nine.

नंस्  $nam^u$  is a group of nine (iv. 192). नंम्बाह् खण्डा namwah khanda is a group of about nine, but a little less.

दह् dah, ten; दहमर dahamara, about ten; दह्य daha-y, only ten.

दंद  $dah^u$  is a group of ten (iv. 192), and दंकाइ खाउा  $dahw\bar{a}h$  khandā is a group of about ten, but a little less.

इय् hăth is a hundred; इयाइ खाडा hăthāh khaṇḍā is a group of about a hundred, but a little less.

The word for 'fifty' is पन्नाइ  $pants\bar{a}h$ , the  $\mathbf{v}$  pa of which becomes  $\mathbf{v}$  a in composition (iii. 10). Thus,  $\mathbf{v}$  a - वज्ञाइ aka- $wanz\bar{a}h$ , fifty-one;  $\mathbf{v}$  - वज्ञाइ a b - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a - a -

The word for 'sixty' is भोड़ çēth (iv, 176) or भेड़ çaith, the म् ç of both of which becomes इ h in composition (iii. 11). Thus कुन-इंड् kun<sup>a</sup>-haith, fifty-nine; द्व-इंड् dŏ-haith, sixty-two.

इथ् hath; this is the form which a hundred takes in composition up to and including eight hundred (iv. 115); thus

चाल्ह्य्  $\ddot{a}khh\ddot{a}th$ , one hundred, ज़्ह्य्  $z^ahh\ddot{a}th$  two hundred, निह्य्  $trih\ddot{a}th$  (dropping  $\xi$  h), three hundred.

भ्य çăth; this is the form which a hundred takes in composition after eight hundred (iv. 116); thus

नव्शय् navçăth, nine hundred; का इश्य् kāhçăth, eleven hundred; बाइश्य् bāhçăth, twelve hundred.

The following terms are peculiar to counting (iv. 174-177).

- (a) হুঁক  $t\tilde{u}k^u$  means two pice.
- (b) इय् hăth means a pice, when more than two are referred to in counting. Thus, विदय trihăth, three pice; चोर्दय tsōrhăth, four pice; पाँच्हय pāts-hăth, five pice. As in the case of numerals, इय् hăth, becomes अय çăth from nine on. Thus;—नव्अय navçăth. Ten pice are also called साम sās, lit. a thousand.
- (c) ज़ंन zạn<sup>u</sup>, this is the word used in counting persons. Thus ज़ंनि पंचाइसर zạn<sup>i</sup> pantsāhmara, about fifty men. भ्रेट ज़ंनि çēṭh zạn<sup>i</sup>, sixty men.
- (d) ज्य  $l\bar{u}kh$ . This word must be used in counting persons by hundreds or thousands. Thus इश् जून  $h\bar{a}th$   $l\bar{u}k^a$ , a hundred people; ज़र्ह्य जून  $z^ahh\bar{a}th$   $l\bar{u}k^a$ , two hundred persons; विह्य जून  $trih\bar{a}th$   $l\bar{u}k^a$  three hundred people. We also sometimes, however, but rarely, have ह्य ज़िन  $h\bar{a}th$  zani, a hundred people, साम् ज़िन  $s\bar{a}s$  zani, a thousand people, in both of which the i is fully pronounced.

When the emphatic y is added to numerals, we get the following forms—

द्वश्वय् dŏçawa-y, or द्वनवय् dŏnawa-y even both.

यग्रवय trĕçawa-y or यनवय tryanawa-y, even all three.

च्रावय tsöçawa-y or च्नवय tsönawa-y, even all four.

पाँच्वय patsawa-y, even all five.

पण्वय् saçawa-y or षनवय् sanawa-y, even all six.

सतवय satawa-y, even the seven.

रेडवय् aithawa-y, even the eight.

नवय् navawa-y even the nine.

And so on.

The acc. is नवनी navawani. The agent is नवन य nawawayi. and so for all, (iv. 186-188).

We may also say द्वि दश्वय dwaçi doçawa-y; नैवि नववय nawi nawawa-y, and so in all, repeating the first element, (iv. 189).

J. i. 11

In multiplication, the numerals take special forms, as follows:-

- 1. च्रिक क्या नाम्  $ak^i ky\bar{a} n\bar{a}m$ .
- 2. द्वर्ग[न dŏgani.
- 3. यान trāna.
- 4. चाख  $\underline{t}\underline{s}\bar{a}kh$ .
- 5. पंज़ि panzi.
- 6. va  $sak^a$ .
- 7. स्ति sati.
- 8. জ্বি  $\bar{u}th^i$ .
- 9. नेसि  $nam^i$ .
- 10. द्हि dah3.
- 11. काहि  $k\bar{a}h^i$ .
- 12. बाहि bāhi.
- 13. चुवाहि  $truw\bar{a}h^{\bar{i}}$ .
- 14. च्टाइ <u>ts</u>ŏdāhi.
- 15. पन्दांहि pandāhi.

- 16. षुरांचि surāhi.
- 17. सदाहि sadāhi.
- 18. अरद्धि aradāhi.
- 19. कुनवृद्धि kunawuhi.
- 20. aft wuhi.
- 21. अववुद्ध akawuhi.
- 30. वृद्धि trahi.
- 31. अकन्ति akatrahi.
- 40. चृतजिह्ह tsatajihi.
- 50. पन्चाहि pantsāhi.
- 60. शीं (3 çīṭhi.
- 70. सर्न ति satati.
- 80. शीत  $cith^i$ .
- 90. नर्मात namati.
- 100. इति hati.

They are used as follows:-

श्रुक क्या नाम् श्रुक्  $\ddot{a}kh$   $ak^i$   $ky\bar{a}$   $n\bar{a}m$   $\ddot{a}kh$ , one one (is) one. ज्इ श्रुकि क्या नाम् ज़्ह्  $z^ah$   $ak^i$   $ky\bar{a}$   $n\bar{a}m$   $z^ah$ , two ones (are) two. विद् द्र्यनि षंह् trih  $d\ddot{o}gan^i$  sah, three twos (are) six.

सथ् पक दयतां जिद् săth ṣaka dŏyatājih, seven sixes (are) forty-two.

These special forms may be called multiplicative numerals. Multiplicatives above ten can only be used with numerals above ten. Thus काइ वाइ खल इय त द्वयन्ह kāh bāhi ăkh hăth ta döyatrah, eleven twelves (are) a hundred and thirty-two. We cannot say चोर वाइ खरतांजिइ धरतांजिइ धर्मा विवास के किhi aratājih, four twelves are forty-eight, because four is not greater than ten. We can only say बाइ चाख अरतांजिइ bāh tsākh aratājih, twelve fours (are) forty-eight.

## G. Pronouns.

These change their bases in Declension. The following paradigms will give sufficient information.

# ब्बह् $b\ddot{o}h$ , I.

Nom. ब्बह् böh (ii. iii. 8).

श्री कृतं (15).

Acc.  $\mathbf{z} m \check{e} (8)$ .

चास्य asĕ (15).

Ag.  $R = m \check{e}(8, 9)$ .

अस्य asĕ (15).

Gen. , म्योनु  $my\bar{o}n^u$  (11).

सोनु son<sup>u</sup> (19).

Genitive Forms.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

Masc. म्योन्  $my\bar{o}n^a$ .

म्यं नि myānt.

 $\mathbf{Fem.}$  स्थाञ्  $my\bar{a}\tilde{n}$ .

म्याञ myāñĕ.

Similarly for the Plural.

# च्ह tsah, thou.

Nom. चृह् tsah (ii. iii. 8).

लेंचि twah (15).

Acc.  $\forall \underline{t} \underline{s} \check{e} (8)$ .

লম্ভা töhĕ (15).

Ag. च्<u>य</u> <u>tse</u> (8, 9).

लच्च tŏhĕ (15).

Gen, चोन cyōnu (11).

मुस्द्  $tuhand^u$  (18).

Genitive Forms.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

Masc.

चोनु cyön".

चानि cyāni.

Fem. चाज् cyāñ.

चाञ् cyāñě.

Similarly for the Plural.

तिइ tih, that (out of sight), he, she, it.

Nom. Masc. सुद् suh (ii. iii. 2); तिम् tim (16).

fem. स्वद् sŏh, or म sa
(3); neut. तिद् tih (1).

Acc. (Masc. fem.) तिसम् tamis तिसम् timan (16).
(5); तम् tas (20); neut.
तथ् tăth (7).

Ag. (M. n.) त्रीं tami (5); f. तिमी timau (16). तिम tami.

Gen. (M. f.) तमि सन्द्  $tam^i$  तिसन्द्  $tihand^u$ ; तिमन् सन्द्  $sand^u$ ; तमन्द्  $tasand^u$ ;  $timan\ hand^u\ (16, 20)$ . तम्  $tas\ (20)$ ; (n.) तम्युक्  $tamyuk^u$ .

This pronoun only refers to things not within sight. For things within sight sq huh is used.

The neuter form agrees with all things without life, whether their grammatical gender is masculine or feminine. Thus तथ् पोथ्य परनम् कित् प्रह tăth pōthĕ paranas kyutu prayg, a couch for reading that book. So in the case of the other pronouns. The plural is the same for all three genders. So elsewhere.

# यिह् yih, who.

Nom. Masc. युम् yus (ii. iii. 2); यिम् yim (16).

fem. य्वस्स yŏss² (4);

neut. यिष् yih (1).

Acc. (Masc. fem.) যদিণ্ yĕmis যিমন্ yiman (16).

(5); যদ্ yas (20),

neut. যথ্yăth (7).

Ag. (M. n.) यं भि yami (5); (f.) यिभी yimau (16). यभि yami (5). Gen. (M. f.) यंगि संन्ह्  $yam^i$  यिसंन्ह्  $yihand^u$ ; यिसन् संन्ह्  $sand^u$ ; यसंन्ह्  $yasand^u$   $yiman\ hand^u$  (16, 20). (20); यस् yas (20); (n.) यम्पुक्  $yĕmyuk^u$ .

क्या इ kyāh, who, what?

Nom. Masc. कुस् kus (ii. iii. 2); कस् kam (16). fem. कस्स  $k \breve{o} ss^a$  (4); neut. क्या स् $k y \bar{a} h$  (1).

Acc. (Masc. fem.) किमस् (5); कमन् kaman (16).

कस् kas (20); (neut.)

कथ् kăth (7).

Ag. (M. n.) क्मि  $kam^{i}$  (5); कमी kamau (16). (f.) किम kami (5).

Gen. (M. f.) किम सन्द  $kam^i$  कर्र  $kahand^u$ ; कमन् रिन्ट्  $sand^u$ ; कर्मन्द् kasandu;  $kaman\ hand^u$  (16, 20). कस् kas (20); n. कम्युक्  $kamyuk^u$ .

इह् yih, this.

Nom. Masc. इ要 yih (ii. iii. 2); इस yim (16).
fem. इ要 yih (3); neut.

इ要 yih (1).

Acc. (Masc. fem.) इमिस् yimis इसन् yiman (16).

(5); चिमिस् nŏmis (5);

neut. इथ् yith (7); चथ्

nŏth (7).

Ag. (M. n.) इसि  $yim^i$  (5); इसी yimau (16). चंिस  $nwam^i$  (5); (f.) इसि yimi (5); च्विस nomi (5).

Gen. (M. f.) द्वि सेन्दु  $yim^i$  द्देन्दु  $yihand^u$ ; दसन् देन्द्  $sand^u$ ; दसन्दु  $yisand^u$   $yiman\ hand^u$  (16, 20). (20); न्विम सेन्दु  $nwam^i$   $sand^u$ ; (n.) दम्युक् yim- $yuk^u$ ; न्वम्युक्  $nŏmyuk^u$ .

इह huh, that (within sight).

Nom. Masc. まず huh (ii. iii. 2); まず hum (16).

fem. まず hŏh (3);

neut. まず huh (1).

Acc. (Masc. fem.) इ.मिम् humis इ.मन् human (16).
(5); श्रामिम् amis (6);
neut. इ.थ् huth (7).

Ag. (M. n.) इसि humi (5); इसी humau (16).

असि ami (6); (f.)

इसि humi (5); असि

ami (5).

Gen. (M. f.) इसि सन्द  $hum^i$  इसेन्द  $huhand^u$ ; इसन् देन्द्र  $sand^u$ ; इसेन्द्र  $husand^u$  (16, 20).  $sand^u$ ; इसेन्द्र  $husand^u$ ; असेन्द्र  $asand^u$  (20); (n.) इस्युक्  $humyuk^u$ ; अस्युक्  $amyuk^u$ .

This pronoun only refers to things within sight. For things out of sight, तिइ tih is used.

# The Reflexive Pronoun.

The word पान  $p\bar{a}n^a$ , self, is declined only in the singular (ii. iii. 36). Its genitive is irregular (37). Thus,—

> Nom. पान  $p\bar{a}n^a$ , self or selves.

पानस् pānas, self or selves. Acc.

पनुन panun<sup>u</sup> (fem. पनेञ् panañ).

पान  $p\bar{a}n^a$ , by self or selves (NOT पानन  $p\bar{a}nan$ ). Ag.

[Example स्य पान कंदम् më pāna karu-m by me, myself, it was done].

The word  $\nabla \bar{q} p \bar{a} n$ , meaning the human body is declined regularly in both numbers, like a noun of the first declension. Its genitive is hence पानुक  $p\bar{a}nuk^u$  (ii. iii. 36, 37).

Pronominal adjectives (ii. iii. 25-27).

यूत्  $y\bar{u}t^u$ , this much. Fem. यूच्  $y\bar{u}\underline{t}\underline{s}^{\bar{u}}$ . त्यूत्  $ty\bar{u}t^u$ , that much. त्यूच्  $ty\bar{u}\underline{t}\underline{s}^u$ . यूच्  $ty\bar{u}\underline{t}\underline{s}^u$ . यूच्  $yy\bar{u}\underline{t}\underline{s}^u$ . यूच्  $yy\bar{u}\underline{t}\underline{s}^u$ .

कूत्  $k\bar{u}t^u$ , how much.

The declension of these is given under the head of nouns, see p. 55.

### Indefinite Pronouns.

काँ इ $k\tilde{a}h$  or कूँ इ $k\tilde{a}h$  or काँ इहाइ  $k\tilde{a}\underline{t}\underline{s}h\tilde{a}h$  any one, some one, (m. and f.) (ii. iii. 29, 30, 31).

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

कूँ ह् $k\widetilde{a}h$  काँ ह् $k\widetilde{a}h$  or काँ हा ह् केन्च् kents. katshah.

के सि kaĩsi. Acc.

केन्च्न kentsan.

कें पि kaisi.

केन्द्री kentsau.

In the singular it is always declined like a feminine noun, even in the masculine.

केंद्राह्  $k\tilde{e}\underline{t}sh\bar{a}h$ , means 'any thing' (ii. iii. 31).

It is not declined.

### Emphatic and Indefinite Particles. H.

(ii. iii. 21; iv. 126).

The particle y is added to all words to give emphasis. be added either to the main word or to the declensional or conjugational suffix. When added to a word ending in a consonant it becomes Thus,— জয $^{ar{u}}y$ .

तसन्द्य tasanduy, even his, from तसन्द tasandu, his. निम चेन्दु tami sandu, his. त्मि चन्द्य tam' sanduy, even his,

ग्वरसूय् भन्दर् göras andar, even in ग्वरस् खन्दर् göras andar, in the preceptor. the preceptor.

भ्वरन्य् अन्दर् göran y andar, even in the preceptors.

म्बरन्य् इन्दि पुक्ष् göran म handi putshy, even to the preceptors.

 $\mathbf{or}$ 

अवरन् इन्दिय् पुछा् göran handiy putshy

 $\mathbf{or}$ 

ग्वरन इन्दि पुहिस् göran handi putshiy.\*

गारुलुय् gāṭuluy, certainly clever, from गारुलु gāṭulu, clever.

करान्य कुर् karānāy chuh, he is certainly doing.

कर्योन्य्  $kary\bar{o}n^{\bar{u}}y$ , he certainly did. कर्योन्  $kary\bar{o}n$ , he did.

करिय kariy, he will certainly do.

तिथय tithay, even in that manner.

to the preceptors.

करान् छइ karān chuh, he is doing.

खर्न चन्दर görun andar in the

ग्वरन् इन्दि पुछा göran handi putshy

preceptors.

करि kari, he will do.

तिथ titha in that manner.

The word सोच्  $s\bar{o}r^u$ , all, always takes this suffix (ii. iii. 22).

Thus,—

Nom. sg. सोच्य soruy; Nom. pl. सीरिय sāriy; instead of सोक् soru मार्दि sāri, respectively.

<sup>\*</sup> you putshy is really another way of writing you putshi.

When v y is suffixed to the letter द्या au, the two together become ध्यूय्  $av^{\bar{u}}y$ , (ii. iii. 23).

Thus,—

गुर्यवृष् स्रीतन् guryav<sup>ū</sup>y sūtin, by the horses certainly, from गुर्ये स्रीतन् guryau sūtin, by the horses.

नमव्य स्त्रीतन्  $namav^{\bar{u}}y$   $s\bar{u}tin$ , even by the nails, from नमी स्त्रीतन् namau  $s\bar{u}tin$ .

Indefiniteness is shown by adding  $\forall \bar{a}h$  to a noun in the nom. sing. The termination cannot be added to other cases (ii. iii. 38).

कथाइ  $kath\bar{a}h$ , any story, from कथ्  $k\check{a}th$ , a story; अखाइ  $akh\bar{a}h$ , some one, any one, from अख्  $\check{a}kh$ , one; आराइ  $j\bar{o}r\bar{a}h$ , some pair or other, from जोर  $j\bar{o}r^a$ , a pair. The last may, however, be declined, thus जोराही स्रोतन्  $j\bar{o}r\bar{a}hau$   $s\bar{u}tin$  by any pair.

When खाड़ा khaṇḍā is added to these words, it indicates a slight diminution. Thus क्राइ kruh, a kōs; क्राइइ kruhāh, about a kōs; क्राइइ सिप्तामिकी khaṇḍā, about a kōs, but a little less; so दहाइ खाड़ा dŏhāh khaṇḍā, about a day, but something less; चेथाइ खाड़ा rathāh khaṇḍā, about a season but something less; चपयाइ खाड़ा rupayāh khaṇḍā, about a rupee, but something less. The syllable आइ āh may be omitted, and then खाड़ khaṇḍ not खाड़ा khaṇḍā is used. Thus, क्राइ खाड़ kruh khaṇḍ, about a kōs, but a little less.

The suffix ज़  $z^{\bar{u}}$  added to a word signifies a group, or number. Thus, from कह  $k \check{a} t h$ , rams, कर्ड्य  $k \check{a} t a z^{\bar{u}}$ , a number of rams; from गुर्  $gur^i$ , horses, गुर्ज़्  $gur^iz^{\bar{u}}$ , a number of horses, a troop of horses; from रूपय  $rupay\check{e}$ , rupees, रूपयंज़्  $rupay\check{e}z^{\bar{u}}$ , a number of rupees; कज़  $k a \tilde{n} \check{e} z^{\bar{u}}$ , a heap of stones (ii. iii. 46).

The word **पহাৰ** pahān qualifies the word which it follows (iv. 193). Thus,—

बंदु पदान् bạḍu pahān, somewhat big.

यंद्र पदान् vyathu pahān, somewhat stout.

बुषण् पद्मान् wusun pahān, somewhat hot.

दूर् पदान् dūr pahān, somewhat distant.

न्यूर् पद्यान् nyūr pahān, somewhat near.

ब्राँड पदान् broth pahān, somewhat in front.

पथ पहान् păth pahān, somewhat behind.

चौरि पद्यान tsīri pahān, after some time (चेर् tsēr, delay).

कांग्रह पदान् kāçuru pahān, somewhat Kashmīrī.

बंगानुकु पद्दान् baygāluku pahān, somewhat Bengali.

बुद्धयुद्ध पहान् wuhuryundu pahān, somewhat in that direction.

यज्ञयुदु पहान् yahuryundu pahān, somewhat in this direction.

The following conjunctions are given by Īçvara-kaula.

त  $t^a$ , and (iv. 178). E.g., सुड् त चूड्  $suh\ t^a\ \underline{ts}^a h$ , he and thou.

ति ti, also (iv. 179). It is also used instead of  $\pi$   $t^a$  with plurals.

Thus,—सुद् ति च्द् ति suh ti tsah ti, he also, you also. मद्दिवि ति गुपन् ति आय् mahanivi ti gupan ti āy, both the men and the cattle came. We cannot say मद्दिवि त गुपन् त आय् mahanivi ta gupan ta āy.

ৰিষ biya, means, 'again.' It also means 'other,' (iv. 180). Thus, ৰিষ ক্ৰিয়ে biya karizi, you should do it again. ৰিষ বনি biya wati by another road.

ज़न् zan, like (iv. 181). E.g., तोत ज़न् सुद् परान्  $t\bar{o}t^a$  zan chuh  $par\bar{a}n$ , he reads like a parrot. मांखिस् ज़न् सुद् रहान्  $m\bar{a}lis$  zan chuh  $rach\bar{a}n$ , he protects him as if he (the object) was his father.

हार् hyuhu (also written दिस् hihu), fem. दिश् hiçu, means 'like,' (iv. 182, 183). E.g., मोलिए हार् mālis hyuhu, like his father, (e.g., this child is like his father). मोलु हार् इस् mōlu hyuhu chu-s (s is the dative pronominal suffix of the 3rd person), he is like a father to him. खन हार् नापान sŏn hyuhu chuh nāpān, it is shining like gold. We also have phrases like बुद्ध हार् चिनचान buḍu hyuhu anizyan, bring whoever (amongst them) is old, —— not, bring him like an old man.

# I. On the Rhyming Repetition of words (anuprāsa).

Words of any kind are repeated to show indefiniteness or reciprocity. In such a case the letter  $\mathbf{q}$  w or v  $\mathbf{q}$  p is usually substituted in the second word, for the first letter of the original word (viii. i. 30). Thus,

करान् वरान् कुइ karān warān chuh, he is doing it or nearly doing it.

द्यार् यार् यान् dyār vyār anin, let him bring the wealth, &c.

बत वत ख्यिंग् bata wata khyayin, let him eat rice, &c.

धन्वार् वन्वार anwār wanwār or धन्वार् पन्वार् anwār panwār, turn and turn about.

If the main word begins with  $\mathbf{q} p$  or  $\mathbf{q} v$  or w, the second begins with  $\mathbf{q} v$  or w or  $\mathbf{q} p$  respectively (viii. i. 31). Thus,—

पर् वर् par war, read (imperative), &c.

पैस वैंस दितिन् paisa waisa ditin, let him give pice and the like.

वाँगन् पाँगन् अन् wagan pagan an, bring brinjals and other like vegetables.

वाज़ पाज़ बिह्  $w\bar{a}z^a$   $p\bar{a}z^a$  chih, they are cooks, &c.

The word युनु (विनु)  $vyu\underline{t}\underline{s}^u$ , a collection, makes युनु पोनु  $vyu\underline{t}\underline{s}^u$   $p\bar{o}\underline{t}\underline{s}^u$ , an omnium gatherum.

There are irregular formations, such as (viii. i. 32).

न्युक् (निक्) सुक् nyuku suku, a collection. न्युक् nyuku means literally 'a little.'

मंडु यंडु myandu tyandu, mouthfuls, &c.

चंसु केस halu kalu, crooked, &c.; but

इंस वंस halu walu, girdles and the like.

हां ज्ञा मां ज्ञू  $h\bar{q}nz^{\bar{u}}$   $g\bar{q}nz^{\bar{u}}$ , boatmen, &c.

फोल फोल phạlu phyạtu, ornaments, &c.

चोत् वांत्  $\bar{o}nt^u$   $w\bar{o}nt^u$ , shallow and the like.

These compounds are feminine when they denote reciprocity. For examples, see p. 71.

# J. Forms of address.

Instead of a formal vocative case, Kāçmīrī uses a number of Interjections, each causing or not causing changes in the base of the noun with which they are used. The following is an abstract table showing the Interjections described by Içvara-kaula, in the Sambuddhi-pāda (ii. 2) of his grammar. As a rule, before interjectional suffixes,  $\vec{\mathbf{q}}$  u-mātrā and  $\vec{\mathbf{q}}$   $\vec{\mathbf{u}}$ -mātrā are changed to  $\vec{\mathbf{q}}$  i (or  $\vec{\mathbf{q}}$  y).

Ref. to No. of Sūtra.	Interjection.	How used.	Word.	Form of address.
<b>C</b> 3	₹ hē.	Respectful. By man to man.	नारान् गवंग्वंग (N. P.)	हे नारान् he nărăn. हे नारान जब he nărăn iuv.
	के hē—जुन् juv (or a caste-word instead of		गण कौस् व्रवण्य-kaul (N P.)	के गण कील् he gaņa-kaul.
က	juv). Hr sā may be added!	Ditto.		दे नारान् सी he naran sā.
	after any of the above.			इ नारान् जुन् सा ne naran yuv sų. हे राम कीस् सी he rāma-kaul sā.
4	दनस्हि hatasāhē may	Ditto.		इतसि नारान् जुन् hatasāhe nārān juv.
	be substituted for			इतसि है राम कीस् hatasāhē rāma-kaul.
	F he.			हतसी है नारान् जुन् सी hatasāhē nārān
				$iuv\ sar{a}.$

इनसिंह राम कील् सी hatasāhē rāma- kaul sā. इसिंह नारान् जुन् hasāhē nārān juv. इसिंह नारान् जुन् hatasāhē gaņa sā. हेनसिंह गण सी. hatasāhē gaņa sā. हे नारान् बा hē nārān bā.	हतस्हि सहज् वा hastaähe sahaz bā.	नाराना गवेग्वेगवे. नारान् जुना गवेग्वेग गुंधण्ये.	इता माना hatā mānā. इता मान कीचा hatā māna-kaulā. इता गुच्या hatā gulyā (note the change	of a to y). हा नारानो hā nārānō. हा नासानो hā kākō.
नारान् गर्वेग्वेग.	सङ्ज sahaza (N. P.)		मान māna (N. P.) मान कौस mūna-kaul. गुस् gulu (N. P.)	काक् kāk, a father.
In addressing a priest, a person of the middle class, or a servant.	If the above are old.	In addressing male juniors or inferiors.	Ditto.	In addressing a person at a distance, or in sorrow.
Or इस्टि hasāhē. With these, if neither जुन् juv nor any casteword is used, then में इं must be added.  हे hē—ना bā used without जुन् juv or caste-word.	इतस्डि hatasāhē or इतवाहे hatabāhē.	— Tr ā added either to the bare name or to the caste-word.	Or preceded by इता hatā.	द्वा भेय — स्रो ठ.
ro	9	2	œ	o,

	0. 11. 0			,	ww.	[110. 1)
Form of address.	इतो प्यो hatō paryō (note vowel change).	पावित् मोज pārvat mājū. पावैत विञ्ज nārnat hiñ		हतमांज पार्वेत् मांज hatamājā pārvat mājā.	इतिबिज् सरसत् बिज् hatabiñ saraswat biñ.	<b>इति</b> बिञ् पार्वेत् मोज hatabiñ pārvat māj <sup>ū</sup> .
Word.	पैक् pạru (N. P.)	पानैत् pārvat (N. P.)			परसन् saraswat (N. P.)	
How used.	In addressing a person at a distance, or in sorrow.	When a man addresses an elder woman.	in age, or of an age equal to that of the	speaker. As in the two last.		•
Interjection.	इतो hatō may be sub- stituted for दा hā.	—मोज्ञ mājā added to the bare name.	330 S.	हतमाज्ञ hatamāj <sup>ū</sup> or हतविज्ञ् hatabiñ may	precede.	
Ref. to No. of Sūtra.	10	11	-	13		

14 }	14 }       बाय् hāy—य् y.         15 }       बतय् hatay—य् y.         इताय् hatāy—य् y.       बताय् hatāy—य् y.	In addressing female juniors or inferiors.	विष्क् watsharu, child.	हाय वर्षात्य hay watshariy (note change of vowel). हत्य वर्षात्य वर्षात्य hatay watshariy.
$ \begin{array}{c} 16 \\ 18 \\ 25 \end{array} $	इनवा hatabā—वा bā.	When a woman ad- dresses a man or	हिमत् himat (N. P.)	हतान् निर्मित् वा hatabā himat bā.
•		. S		
$\begin{cases} 17 \\ 18 \end{cases}$	इतवा hatabā—को au.	Ditto, in addressing familiars or juniors		इतवा काकी hatabā kākau. इती काकी hatau kākau.
25)		(male or female).	•	इती डिसत् कोसी hatau himut kolau.
$\begin{array}{c} 19 \\ 25 \end{array}$	हतना hatabā—भ a. हती hatau—भ a.	Ditto.	काक् $k\bar{a}k$ , a father. गण $gan^a$ , (N. P.)	इतवा काक $hatab\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}k^a$ . इतो गण $hatau$ $gan^a$ .
$\left.\begin{array}{c} 20 \\ \end{array}\right.$	इनवा $hatab\bar{a}$ —च नाय $a$ $b\bar{a}y^a$ .	Used by women in addressing men or	महादेव् mahādēv (N. P.)	इतवा महादेव बाय $hatabar{a}$ $mahar{a}dar{e}v^a$ $bar{a}y^a.$
25)	इतना hatabā—च नायो a bayau. इतो hatau—च	women by their proper names only,	-	इतवा महादेव बायौ hatabā mahādēva bāyau.

	The second secon			
Ref. to No. of Sūtra.	Interjêction.	How used.	Word.	Form of address.
	बायी a bāyau.	we cannot say इतवा		इती महाट्रेव बायी hatau mahādevo
		কাক ৰাষ $hatab\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}k^ab\bar{a}y^a$ , O father.		bāyau.
$21 \atop 25 \atop 5$	इतोव् hatöv—चौ au.	Used by women in addressing a man	मनसा राम् manasā rām (N. P.)	इत्रोव् मनसा रामी hatōv manasā rāmau
		or woman at a dis-	,	
		tance.		
55		Also by Musalmān	काहिर् kādir.	इतोव् काहिरी hatov kādirau.
		women in addres-		
		sing their husbands.		
23		Not by Brāhmaņi		
		women, who only		
		use the following.		
24	इन hate.	Used by a Brāhmaņi		हत hato.
		women when ad-		
		dressing her hus-	,	
		band, when she is		
	•			

	बाइन्से बेhansā. बाइनो बेhanbā. बाइनो बेhanō. बाइन् मोज् बेhan mājū. बाइन् बिञ् बेhan biñ.	चाइनू ahanu. चाइनुन् ahanuv. चाइन्स् किरान् इस् क्रिकाइक karan hasā chuh, yes, Sir, he is doing. चाइन्स् किरन् इस् कितकाइक karu-n hasā, yes, Sir, he did do.
nd on Iy on.	1; 2g to	1y
alone with him, and she is near by. She does not mention his name. Merely uses the interjection.	May be prefixed to any of the foregoing to signify concurrence, 'yes.'	Used affirmatively with verbs, with the above.
	षाहन् वैभवाः	e ha.
J. t. 13	56	22 28 30 80 80

Form of address.	भाइन्यो बन इसां कुड् रनान् āhansā bata hasā chuh ranān, yes, Sir, he is cooking rice. नबा करान् नबा कुष्ट् nabā karān nabā chuh, no, Sir, he is not doing.	āhansā nārān hasā chuh pūthi parān yes, Sir, Nārāyaņa is reading the book.  朝暖。  朝暖。  明暖。  明耀。  明耀。  明耀。  明耀。  明耀。  明耀。  明
Word.		
How used.	Similarly used as a negative.	
Interjection.	ا ا ا ا ا ا ا ا ا ا ا ا ا ا ا ا ا ا ا	
Ref. to No. of Sūtra.	63	

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Two Copper-plate Grants of Ratnapāla of Prāgjyōtiṣa in Āsām.—By
DR. A. F. RUDOLF HOERNLE, C.I.E.

## (With Plates VIII-XIII).

[Read January, 1898.]

These two grants were also sent to me by Mr. E. A. Gait, I.C.S., one in May 1896, the other in April 1897. The former was found in Suālkucī. About the find-place of the latter, nothing is known. It is now in the possession of a cultivator of Nāhorhābi village, Mauza Bargāō, District Darrang, Subdivision Tējpur, who says that it was discovered by his grandfather. As it is convenient to give it a name, and as Tējpur is already appropriated by another Āsām grant, published in this Journal, Vol. IX, it may be called the Bargāon copperplate.

The Suālkucī grant unfortunately is in a very bad condition as will be described hereafter. Without the Bargāon grant, with which most of its contents are identical, it would have been impossible to make any thing satisfactory of it. The Bargāon grant is in an almost perfect condition, and hence I will describe it first.

## I. THE BARGAON GRANT.

This grant and its seal are just like the Gauhati grant of Indrapāla. This will be seen from the photograph (Plates VIII-X), so that I need not repeat their description. The plates, of which there are three, measure  $10\frac{1}{4}$  by  $6\frac{3}{4}$  inches. The seal measures  $4\frac{1}{2}$  by  $3\frac{1}{4}$  inches. The two outside plates are only inscribed on their inner sides. The interior plate has 20 lines on each side; the other two inscribed sides have 17 and 15 lines respectively.

The language of the grant is Sanskrit. It differs from other grants, in giving a portion of the genealogy of the donor in prose. The earlier part of the genealogy, referring to Ratnapāla's ancestry, is in poetry, viz., from the beginning down to line 28. From here the

<sup>1</sup> See my papers on the previous Gauhatī and Nowgong Grants, in this Journal, Vol. LXVI, pp. 113, 285.

description of Ratnapāla's residence and person is in prose, down to line 52. The remainder is as usual: namely the description of the land, its perquisites and boundaries is in prose, viz., from line 52 down line 58, and lines 58 to 64; but the genealogy of the donee is in verse, from lines 65 to 72.

The composition is very laboured; and the fact that about onehalf of the royal genealogy is in prose suggests that the writer's literary powers were not equal to the task of versifying the whole.

The mechanical execution of the grant is very slovenly and inaccurate; it is, in this respect, even worse then that of the Gauhatī grant. Syllables are frequently omitted; thus l. l, duṣtē for nirduṣtair(?); l. 13, kṣi for kṣiti; l. 15, khim for kṣitim; l. 52, Ratnapā for Ratnapāla, etc. Similarly letters are omitted: e. g., l. 11, anaya for anayad; l. 22, anurāgā for anurāgāj. Occasionally superfluous syllables are inserted; e. g., l. 2, anēkīnēbhavan for anēkī-bhavan; l. 8, kuṇḍalēna for kuṇḍalē. Similarly a superfluous l is added in l. 14, jayal-labdha for jaya-labdha, l. 45, udbhāsanal-lāṣō, etc. Anusvāra and visarga are very frequently omitted; see the footnotes 4, 15, 18, etc. Long and short vowels are frequently interchanged; e. g., l. 3, tāt for tat; l. 6, crīyam for criyam, etc. For other miscellaneous blunders, see footnotes 6, 12, 43, 49, 57, 67, etc. A curiosity is the euphonic insertion of r in l. 11, nu-r-iha; and there is another instance in the Suālkucī grant, in l. 21, mārttanḍa-r-iva.

The usual provincialisms abound; for confusion of sibilants, see footnotes 16, 31, 34, 69, 85, 89, 91, etc.; for the ligature of guttural p with sibilants, see footnotes 34, 36, 42, etc.; for the ligature of dental n with gutturals and sibilants see footnotes 16, 18, 28, 29, etc.; for the ligature of m with v, see footnotes 13, 44, 65, 67, etc.

The last mentioned ligature is really explained by the fact that no separate sign for b is used in all these  $\bar{A}s\bar{a}m$  grants. And this fact, again, is explained by the circumstance that in Baŋgālī and  $\bar{A}s\bar{a}m\bar{i}$  no distinction is made, in pronunciation, between non-conjunct v and b; both are pronounced alike as b. There are other indications of a more sporadic occurrence of what may be called "phonetic spelling." They are curious, as showing how far back such fashions of pronunciation may be traced. In modern Baŋgālī and  $\bar{A}s\bar{a}m\bar{i}$   $k\bar{s}$  is pronounced kh. Hence we find in 1.15 khim (false for khitim) spelled for ksitim, and in 1.17,  $v\bar{i}khya$  for  $v\bar{i}k\bar{s}ya$ . Similarly non-conjunct initial y is now pronounced j, and conjunct y is omitted. An instance of the former practice occurs in 1.21,  $j\bar{a}$  for  $y\bar{a}$ , 1.35,  $jak\bar{s}man\bar{a}$  for  $yak\bar{s}man\bar{a}$ , also in the Gauhaṭī grant II  $a^1ja\bar{c}a\bar{s}$  for  $yac\bar{c}a\bar{s}$ . An instance of the latter practice occurs in the Nowgong grant in III  $a^6$   $C\bar{a}m\bar{a}yik\bar{a}$ , the correct

spelling of which name  $Qy\bar{a}m\bar{a}yik\bar{a}$  occurs in the Bargãon grant 1.61. Possibly the curious spelling in 1.18  $yuyyat\bar{e}$  for  $yujyat\bar{e}$  may be due to a similar cause; so also the form ya in 1.50, for ca; though these would rather be survivals of an old prākritic fashion which has not survived to the present day.

Palæographically it may be noted that the avagraha occurs only four times, in 11. 26, 58, 59, 63, though there were sixteen other occa-

sions for its use.

An r preceding a consonant is always formed above the line, even with y; e.g., l. 21,  $\bar{a}$ ccaryam.

The guttural nasal y is, as in the Nowgong grant, throughout made without a ringlet; see Il. 3, 4, 14, 15, 17, 27, 33, 35, 41, 43, 60. The initial short i is also made exactly as in the Nowgong grant by means of two ringlets placed above a hook; e.g., in l. 35,  $T\bar{a}ika$ ; Il. 8 and 45, iva; l. 24, iti. Also kh and r are made after the older fashion. All this shows that the Bargãon grant cannot be very far apart, in age, from the Nowgong grant.

The anusvāra, in the Bargāon grant as well as in the Nowgong grant, is formed by a ringlet, placed (in the usual way) above the line. In the Gauhaṭī grant it is occasionally placed on the line. In modern Baŋgālī the latter position is universal. This shows that the Gauhaṭī grant must be appreciably later than the Bargāon and Nowgong grants.

The virāma occurs twice to indicate a final consonant in 1.23, samyak, with the full form of k, and in 1.23, mandam with a slightly truncated form of m. In both cases it is attached to the foot of the letter. In the case of final t, n and m specially modified forms are used; thus the final form of t occurs in 1.5, jagat, 1.7, akārṣīt, and 1.63, 'ghāt. The final form of n occurs in 1.54, jānapadān and 1.55, prabhṛtīn and sarvvān. The final form of m occurs in 1.2, tānḍavīm, 1.16, rājyam, 1.32, maṇḍalam, 1.33, alaŋkāram, 1.39, sārthānām, 1.48, gambhīryam and vīryam, 1.65 ātmanam and ālyām, 11.69 and 72, ālyām.

As these final forms, as well as the forms of the guttural nasal, anusvāra and r, are peculiarly serviceable as test-letters in determining the chronology of the Bangālī-Āsāmī script, I have, in the accompanying lithographed table of facsimiles (Plate XI), prepared a small conspectus of them. The reigns I have selected are the following:

(a) Pāla kings of Bengal (Bīhār): Dharmapāla, c. 840-875 A.D., facsimile of his grant in this Journal, Vol. LXIII, Plate III. Nārāyaņa Pāla, c. 925-950 A.D., facsimile of his grant in this Journal, Vol. XLVII, Plates XXIV, XXV;

The ringlet is so small that the blank core is sometimes almost invisible in the photograph, producing the appearance of a mere dot.

- also facsimile of Badal inscription in Epigraphia Indica, Vol. II, p. 160.
- (b) Asām kings: BALAVARMAN, c. 975 A.D., facsimile of his grant in this Journal, Vol. LXVI, Plates XXXV and XXXVI. Ratnapāla, c. 1010, facsimile of his grant in this volume, Plates VIII-X, XII and XIII. INDRAPĀLA, c. 1050, facsimile of his grant, in this Journal, LXVI, Plates III and IV. VAIDYĀDĒVA, c. 1142, facsimile of his grant in the Epigraphia Indica, Vol. II, Plates I-III, p. 351.
- (c) Sēna kings of Bengal (Bihār); VIJAYA SĒNA, c. 1080 A.D., facsimile of his grant in the Epigraphia Indica, Vol. I, p. 308. LAKSMANA SENA, c. 1126, facsimile of his grant in this Journal, Vol. XLIV, Plates I and II.

The table sufficiently explains itself; but I may point out that the special final forms of t and n have arisen from the practice of attaching the virama to the top of the full or truncated forms, instead of appending it, in the usual fashion, to their foot; and that the special final form of m owes its origin to the contraction of the original square m into a small circle, to which the virāma was appended as a tail. Later on, this tail was separated, and thus the forms of m and the anusvāra become identical (No. 8 in columns 5 and 15), because in the meantime the anusvāra had assumed a tendency of standing below instead of above the head-line (No. 5, col. 5). At one time the forms of the truncated n and special final m approached so nearly as to lead to a confusion of them (compare No. 1, col. 12 with col. 15). Thus final n is used for final m twice in the Nowgong grant, see I b2 amalan for amalam, II a vauvanan for yauvanam. An earlier instance occurs in the Dharmapāla grant, line 57, vasundharan for vasundharam 3; other instances are in the Laksmana Sēna grant, Plate I, obverse, line 21, layan for layam; Plate II, reverse, line 21, mantavyan for mantavyam, line 22 pālanīyau for pālanīyam.

On palæographical grounds, therefore, I am disposed to place the two Ratnapāla grants in the earlier half of the 11th century A.D. (c. 1010-1050). The Nowgong grant I would place a little earlier, about 990 A.D., and the Indrapala grant, a little later, about 1060 A.D. The Bargāon grant is not dated in any era; neither is the Suālkucī grant; but the former professes to have been issued in the 25th, and the latter in the 26th year of the reign of Ratnapāla.

Putting together the information given by the Bargaon grant with that afforded by the Tejpur, Nowgong, and Gauhati grants, it now

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> See Epigraphia Indica, Vol. III, p. 250.

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becomes possible to arrange a fairly connected dynastic history of Āsām. All the grants agree in beginning with Hari (Viṣṇu), his son Naraka, his son Bhagadatta, his younger brother Vajradatta. They further agree 4 in stating that Vajradatta was succeeded by several members of his dynasty, after which Naraka's dynasty was displaced by Çāla Stambha, described in the Bargāon grant as a Mlēccha or 'foreign' conqueror. According to that grant, Çāla Stambha was succeeded by twenty other foreign kings, of whom Vigraha Stambha was the first, and Tyāga Simha the last; and the grant adds that after Tyāga Simha the ancient dynasty of Naraka was restored in the person of Brahma Pāla. Unfortunately the Tējpur grant is unsatisfactorily recorded in volume IX of this Journal, both with respect to the original text and its English translation. But this much seems to be clearly stated in it that a series of rulers, commencing with Çāla Stambha, ended with Cri-Harisa, after which a king called Pralambha of Naraka's race succeeded to the throne. On the first view this would seem to show that Tyaga Simha and Çrī-Harişa were the same persons, and so also Brahma Pāla and Pralambha. The latter identification, of course, is impossible, because Brahma Pāla and Pralambha gave rise to two distinct dynasties, as the Bargaon and Nowgong grants show. But it is still possible that these two dynasties might have ruled contemporaneously, in different parts of the country, on Çāla Stambha's dynasty becoming extinct with Tyaga Simha alias Çrī-Harişa. This supposition would seem to derive some confirmation from the fact that the Bargāon and Gauhați grants are given from the town of Durjayā, alias Prāgjyōtiṣa, while the Nowgong grant is given from the "ancestral camp" of Hārūppēçvara. Against this, however, is to be set the fact that Bala Varman (of the Nowgong grant) of the Harjara or Pralambha dynasty is also described on his seal as belonging to the dynasty of the kings of Prāgjyōtiṣa, so that Prāgjyōtiṣa would seem to have been the capital of his country, though he usually or occasionally resided in his "ancestral camp" Hārūppēçvara. But the circumstance which most strongly makes against the identification of Tyaga Simha with Cri-Harisa, is the palæography of the Nowgong grant. The author of that grant, Bala Varman, is the fourth in descent from Harjara, and the fifth in descent from Pralambha, i.e., about 100 years after the commencement of his dynasty, while Ratna Pāla, the author of the Bargāon grant, is first in descent from Brahmapāla, i.e., perhaps 20

<sup>4</sup> Except the Gauhați grant, which, however, allows an "undefined period."

<sup>5</sup> The term Mleccha indicates a Non-Hindū, though the name Çāla Stambha has a distinctly Hindu (Sanskrit) ring; so have the other names of his dynasty. They may be birudas or landatory names.

years after the beginning of his dynasty. It follows, therefore, that Bala Varman comes about 80 years after Ratna Pāla, and that palæographically the Nowgong grant should be later than the Bargāon grant. Their palæographic characters, however, indicate just the reverse. identification of Tyaga Simha with Cri-Harisa, therefore, seems to me very doubtful; nor does it appear that there is any necessity for it. A more probable solution appears to me to be, that Çāla Stambha's dynasty ended with Cri-Harisa, and that it was succeeded by another foreign dynasty, which commenced with Pralambha and ended with Tyaga Simha, after whom the restoration of Naraka's dynasty, in the person of Brahma Pāla, took place. The Bargāon grant does not say that the 20 kings who followed Çāla Stambha were all of the same dynasty; on the other hand, twenty-one (including Çāla Stambha) is a sufficiently large number to accommodate two long dynasties. Moreover the Nowgong grant clearly indicates that a break or change of dynasty tookplace with Harjara (son of Pralambha).

Of Çāla Stambha's dynasty three other members are named: according to the Bargāon grant, Vigraha Stambha was the immediate successor (son?) of Çāla Stambha; and according to the Nowgong grant, there were two other members, named Pālaka and Vijaya, besides some more not named. It would seem that Stambha was the distinguishing name of this dynasty. The named members of it would be (1) Çāla Stambha, (2) Vigraha-Stambha, (3) Pālaka-Stambha, (4) Vijaya-Stambha, who were perhaps the first four of the dynasty; there were several others; the total number may have been ten, occupying a period from about 150 to 200 years.

Of Pralambha's dynasty, five other members, in direct filial succession, are named. According to the Tējpur grant, it would seem that Pralambha's son, by his wife Jīvadā, was Harjara, whose son was Vanamāla. The Nowgong grant adds Jayamāla, Vīrabāhu and Bala Varman, being the son, grandson and great-grandson respectively of Vanamāla. These are the first six members of the dynasty. Their total number may well have been eleven, occupying again a period of about 150 to 200 years. And these eleven, together with the ten of the Çāla Stambha dynasty, would make up the series of twenty-one foreign kings, required by the Bargāon grant, antecedent to the restoration of the Pāla kings of Naraka's dynasty. There are two difficulties about this dynasty. The Tējpur grant seems to say distinctly that Pralambha belonged to Naraka's dynasty, and that

<sup>6</sup> In verse 19 of the translation, Vanamāla, the son of Harjara, is also said to be "like the moon in the clear sky of the Naraka line." The original text has kṣiti-tanaya-nṛpati-vamça or 'the royal race of the son of the Earth.' Naraka is the "son of the Earth."

he was the father of Harjara. On the other hand, the Nowgong grant ignores Pralambha altogether, and commences the dynasty with Harjara. Nor is there any thing in the latter grant to connect him with Naraka's dynasty; on the contrary the non-Hindū sound of the name Harjara points to a foreigner. I am unable to suggest any satisfactory solution; but the weight of the evidence seems to me to be for both dynasties (Çāla Stambha's and Harjara's or Pralambha's) being those of foreign invaders, though they may have occasionally preferred a claim to belong to the ancient indigenous line of kings.

The Pāla dynasty distinctly put forward that claim in both the Bargāon and Gauhați grants; though it may still remain a question whether the claim was well founded. I may here notice a correction. In the Gauhați grant, Plate I, reverse, line 13, the puzzling name Kaumra should be Bhauma or 'Earth-born,' a name of Naraka. I may also notice, that the Bargāon grant distinctly states that Durjayā, which the Nowgong grant describes as a nagarī or 'townlet' and as the vasati or 'residence' of the king, received that name from Ratnapāla, who either founded it or made it into a fortified place, and fixed it as the residence of his dynasty. The fact that the Pāla kings resided in the fort of Durjayā, and the Harjara dynasty in the "ancestral camp" of Hārūppēçvara, while yet both dynasties called themselves "Lords of Prāgjyōtiṣa," may perhaps justify the conclusion that in their time Prāgjyōtiṣa, which was originally the name of a town, had become the name of a country.

Of Ratnapāla it is related that he came into hostile contact with the kings of Gurjara, Gauda, Kērala, and the Dekkau, and with the Bāhikas and Tāikas. Assuming that Ratnapāla's age has been rightly fixed at about 1010 to 1050 A.D., the king of Gurjara of that period would be the Western Cālukyan king Jayasimha III or Sōmēçvara I. By the Kērala king the Cōla Rājarāja is perhaps intended. The Gauda king may have been Mahīpāla or Nayapāla of the Pāla dynasty of Bengal and Bihār. To whom the term "king of Dakṣiṇātya" or the Dekkan may refer, I do not know. The Bāhikas and Tāikas are generally taken to be Trans-Indus people, those of Balkh and the Tajiks. But, as will be seen from the next paragraph, the panegyrist probably only wished to parade his familiarity with Sanskrit literature, and further attempts at identification would be waste of labour.

There is again a curiosity to be noted in the Ratnapāla grants, similar to that in the Nowgong grant (see ante, Vol. LXVI, p. 288), the discovery of which is due to Dr. Th. Bloch, the Society's Honorary Philological Secretary. This is the existence of plagiarisms, or at least imitations, from Bāṇa's Harṣa Carita. The following passages,

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or clauses, may be compared, the references being to Tukaram Javaji's Bombay edition of 1892 (Nirnaya Sāgara Press).

- (1). Bargāon Plate, line 34, Gurjjar-ādhirāja-prajvārēņa, etc. Compare Harṣa Carita, p. 132, Hūṇa-hariṇa-kēsarī Sindhu-rāja jvarō Gurjara-prajāgarō Gāndhār-ādhipa gandha dvipa kūṭa pākalō Lāṭa-pāṭava-pāṭaccarō Mālava-lakṣmī-latā-paraçuḥ.
- (2). Bargāon Plate, line 43, Vāsav-āvāsa-sparddhini. Compare Harṣa Carita, p. 104, Vāsav-āvasa iva (adhivāsaḥ).
- (3). Bargāon Plate, line 48, Arjjunō yaçasi Bhīmasēnō yudhi (or Suālkucī Plate, l. 24, Bhīsmō dhanusi), &c. Compare Harṣa Carita, p. 110, Arjunō yaçasi Bhīsmō dhanusi, etc.

Finally, I may add three corrections in the Gauhatī grant. The blundered phrase  $bh\bar{u}mya-pakṣa-ṣta$  in II  $b^6$  should be  $bh\bar{u}my-apakṛṣṭa$ , as in the Bargāon grant l. 53; it means the 'inferior or non-arable land.' Also  $vy\bar{a}vah\bar{a}rika$  in II  $b^7$  means 'officer': the whole passage in which it occurs should be translated as in the Bargāon grant. Again the phrase  $mahiṣ\bar{i}-j\bar{a}tika$  should be read, as in the Suālkucī grant,  $mahiṣ-\bar{a}j-\bar{a}vika$  'buffalos, goats and sheep.'

### $T_{EXT}$ . I

### First Plate: Reverse.

- 1 Svasti 1º Duṣṭē ³ vapu-vimv(b)akair=n=nakha=gaṭai⁴ svai⁵=n=nṛtya-sampad-vidhēḥ sō sa-çvēva⁶-gatim çubhām prakaṭayan=dṛçyō 'ni-
- 2 çan=tāṇḍavīm i ēvaṁ yaḥ paramātma-vat=pṛthu-guṇ-ōddēhō 'py=anēkī-nē 8-bhavan=prākāmyan=dadhad=ēva bhāti bhuvan-ē-
- 3 ças=tāt<sup>9</sup>=çriyē Çaŋkaraḥ [l ] Mūrttā ki**m** vahat=iha <sup>10</sup> çīta-kara-ru kīm <sup>12</sup> sphāṭikī-vidrutiḥ kim <sup>13</sup>=v=ādy-augha-vibhēdan-ai-
- 4 ka-niratā çakti 4 çubhā Çaŋkarī I yasy=āpāŋ-gatim=ity=avētya janatā yāyēta dhanyā drutam pāyāt=sa praṇiha-
  - 1 From the original plates.
  - 2 Metre of verses 1 and 2: Qārdūla-vikrīdita.
  - 8 One aksara is here omitted; perhaps read nirdustair.
- 4 Read gataih; l. 4, çaktih; l. 5, ākṛtēh; l.·10, çrīh and guṇah; l. 12, yaçah; l. 13, ātmajah and ripuh; l. 14, kīrttih.
  - 5 Read svair.
  - 6 Read çvēta. See note to translation.
  - 7 Uddēha is not noted in any dictionary.
  - 8 Read  $an\bar{e}k\bar{i}$ -bhavan;  $n\bar{e}$  is superfluous.
  - 9 Read tat-çriyē or rather tac-chriyē.
  - 10 Read iha, m. c. (i.e., vahati iha).
  - 12 Read kara-ruk=kim.
  - 13 Read kim vā.

- 5 tya sarvva-kaluṣaṁ lauhitya-sindhur=jagat || [2 ||] 14 Dharāṁ Harēr= uddharataḥ kir-ākṛtē 4 payōdhi-magnā Nārakō 16 'sur-ānsa-
- 6 ka  $^{16}$  | sa sūnur-āçīt  $^{17}$ =sura-yōṣid-anginī  $^{18}$  | çrīyam  $^{19}$ =pratindūyitam  $^{20}$  =ēva yēna hi  $_{\parallel}$  [3  $_{\parallel}$ ] | Yaç  $^{21}$ =c=āval=ēti jarat=īti bhiyā-yut=ē-
- 7 ti mūdh=ēti v(b)andhu-rahit=ēti vipad-gat=ēti | hitv=Āditīs × 22 vajitya surān=ahārṣīt tat-ku-
- 8 ṇḍalēna <sup>23</sup> sura-yaçō-mahaçī iv=āgryē | [| 4 ||] Kāntā-mukhair= v=v(b)ahu-vidhāv <sup>24</sup>=iva vīra-vṛṇḍais=tējasvibhī
- 9 ravi-gaņān=iva sandadhānē | Prāgjyōtisē 25 'vasad=asau pravarē purāṇāṁ dōr-dappa 26-saṁcaraṇa-
- 10 cārutar-ārjjita-çrī 4 || [5 ||] Yuddhē purātana it=īddha-guņa 4 pit= ēti yāvad=vicintya kṛpayā sa
- 11 cacāra mandam | tāvad=Dharis=tam=anaya <sup>27</sup>=divam=ātitānsōs <sup>28</sup> =tējānsy <sup>29</sup>=ahō nu r <sup>30</sup>=iha nō gaṇan=ā-
- 12 sti v(b)andhau | [16 ||] Dhīras=tatas=tata-yaça4-paṭa-guṇṭhi-āçō <sup>31</sup> yaç=c=āpir aktam=akarōd=bhuvanaṁ guṇ-aughaiḥ | bhavyaḥ sa bhūri-vibha-
- 13 võ Bhagadatta-nāmā tasy=ātmaja<sup>4</sup> kṣi <sup>32</sup>-dhurām v(b)ibharāñ=cakā-ra || [7 ||] vajr=īva nirjjita-ripu<sup>4</sup> pṛthu-vajra-kāntiḥ sv-ōrjj-ārj-javā-
- 14 rjjita-jagaj-jayal<sup>33</sup>-lav(b)dha-kīrtti <sup>4</sup> | rājyan=tad=āpa rucam=astamitē khar-āŋsau <sup>34</sup> bhrātuḥ çikh=īva valavān=n=iha **Vajra-dattaḥ** 
  - 14 Metre: Vamça-sthavila.
  - 15 Read magnām narakō. Perhaps the intended reading was magnān =narakō.
  - 16 Read āmçakah.
  - 17 Read āsīt.

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- 18 Read anginim.
- 19 Read criyam.
- 20 Perhaps read pratindāyitam, (i.e., prati indāyitam).
- 21 Metre of verses 4-8:  $Vasanta-tilak\bar{a}$ ; but the second half of verse 4 is out of order, its first pada having only 13, while its second pada has 15 instants.
- 22 This akṣara is illegible; there is also here one short instant wanting; perhaps read  $Aditi\dot{m}$  samavajitya, or  $Aditi\bar{c}an=avajitya$ .
  - 23 There is here one short instant in excess; read kundale, omitting na.
  - 24 Read vidhān.
  - 25 Read Prāgjyōtiṣē.
  - 26 Read darppa.
  - 27 Read anayad.
  - 28 Read ātitāmsos.
  - 29 Read tējāmsy.
  - 50 Here r is inserted in order to avoid the hiatus nu iha.
  - 31 Read amso
  - 38 Here one short aksara is omitted. Read kṣiti.
  - 88 Read jaya, and below, 1. 30, luntana, and 1. 45, odbhāsana; omitting l.
  - 34 Read kharāmçau.

- 108 Dr. Hoernle-Two Copper-plate Grants of Ratnapala. [No. 1,
- 15 || [8 ||] 35 Ēvam vaņça 36-kramēņa khim 37=atha nikhilām bhuñjatā 83 nārakāṇām rājñā 33 mlēcch-ādhināthō vidhi-calana-vaçād=ēva ja-
- 17 samkhyayā samvibhinnā<sup>39</sup> || [9 ||] <sup>41</sup>Nirvvançam <sup>42</sup> nṛpam=ēkavim-satitamam <sup>42</sup> çrī-**Tyāga-simh**-āsidhan<sup>43</sup>=tēṣām=vīkhya<sup>44</sup> divaŋ=gatam punar=a-

#### Second Plate: Obverse.

- 18 hō bhaumō hi nō yuyyatē 45 [1] svām=iti 46 pravicintya tat-prakṛtayō bhū-bhāra-rakṣā-kṣamaṁ sāgaudhyāt=paricakrirē narapa-
- 19 ti <sup>39</sup> çrī-**V(b)rahmapālaṁ** hi yaṁ [ [ 10 || ] Ēkō 'sau jitavān=ṛpun<sup>47</sup>= samiti bhō ki <sup>39</sup> nāma citra <sup>39</sup> nidaṁ <sup>48</sup> atr=ōdāharaṇaṁ Harō Ha-
- 20 ri=ahō Bhīṣm-ādayō 'nē <sup>49</sup> pi hī t itham <sup>50</sup> samparimṛçya yasya hi bhaṭā sthāna-sthitasya dviṣām dikṣv=aṣṭāsv=api vidra-
- 21 vēņa mahat=āçcaryan bl=sadā mēnirē  $\| [11 \|] \| ^{52}$  Vibhava-phalavilās-āsvāda-jāt-ābhilāṣa blava-phalavilās-āsvāda-jāt-ābhilāṣa blava-blava-phalavilās-āsvāda-jāt-ābhilāṣa blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-blava-bl
- 22 nurāgā <sup>65</sup> janēṣu + avani-kula-samutha <sup>56</sup>-kṣmāpa-samprātya <sup>57</sup>-lakṣ-myāḥ sthitam=iva kula-dēvī-nāmadhēyam=v(b)abhāra (12)
  - 35 Metre of verse 9: Sragdharā.
  - 38 Read vamça.
  - 87 One short akşara is wanting. Read kşitim.
  - 38 Read bhuñjatām and rājñām.
- 59 Read Gālastambhaḥ, and vikhyātāḥ; l. 17, samvibhinnāḥ; l. 19, narapatim, kim and citram.
  - 40 One aksara is wanting. Read dvigunita.
  - 41 Metre of verses 10 and 11: Qārdūla-vikrīdita.
  - 42 Read nirvvamçam and ēkavimçatitamam.
  - 43 Read ābhidhan.
  - 41 Read tēṣām vīkṣya.
  - 45 Read yujyatē or yūyatē.
  - 46 Read svām=īti.
  - 47 Read ripum or ripun.
  - 48 Read nidām or nvidam (i.e., nu idam).
  - 49 Read 'nyē (for anyē).
  - 50 Read ittham.
  - 11 Read āçcaryam.
  - 52 Metre: Mālinī.
  - 53 Rend abhilasah; 1. 27, anubhavah.
  - 54 Read ya.
  - to Read nurāgāj (i.e., yā anurāgāj = janēşu).
  - Ed Read samuttho.

- 23 68 Ratn-ōpamā narapati 59 sva-guņair=m=mah-ārhān=yaḥ pālayēd= iti janair=avagamya samyak | nītaḥ prasiddhim=iha tē-
- 24 na sa-kīrttanēna çrī-Ratnapāla iti sūnur=ajāyat=āsyām 60 || [13 ||] Durvvāra-vairi-kari-kumbha-bhidā-bhav-āsra-srōtō-va-
- 25 h-āhati-calat-kari-muktikābhiḥ [I] yad-yuddha-bhūr=v=vipaṇi-vad=dhata-pādma-rāgī çōbhōta <sup>61</sup>
- 26 vīra-vaņijā <sup>62</sup> nikarai <sup>62</sup> prakīrņņā || [14.||] Simhāsanē 'thā <sup>63</sup> Narakānvaya-j-āv(b)ja-bhānu <sup>64</sup> samvēçya <sup>65</sup>
- 27 tām<sup>66</sup> divam=agād=a-kalanka-gaṇḍaḥ | kāl-ōcitam vicaritum hi mahānubhāvā <sup>53</sup> samvidri-
- 28 tē <sup>67</sup> hi guṇa-dōṣa-vidō bhavasya u [15] <sup>68</sup> Niçit-āsi-marīci-mañjarī-jaṭila-bhuja-v(b)ala-vi-
- 29 jita-narapati-sat<sup>69</sup>-ōpāyanī-kṛta-sa-mada-gaja-ghaṭā-kaṭa-syāndi <sup>70</sup>-dān-āmv(b)u-çīkar-āsā-
- 30 ra-samupaçamita-santāpam sakal-āri-kaṭaka-luṇṭanal<sup>33</sup>-lampaṭa-su-bhaṭa-v(b)āhu-viṭap-āṭavī-
- 31 samkaṭam=api mahājana-nivāsa-yōgyam <sup>60</sup> I sa-mada-sundarī-smita-sudhā-dhavalita-saudha-çi-
- 32 khara-sahasr-ānta-hṛta<sup>71</sup>-taraṇi-maṇḍalam | Malay-ācala-sthali<sup>73</sup>-ruha-kānanam=iv=ānēka-bhōgī <sup>73</sup>-çata-sēvitam <sup>60</sup> | nabhō-
- 33 **vat**=sēv-āvāpta-v(b)udha-guru-kāvy-ālaŋkāram | kailāsa-giri-çikha-ram=iva paramēçvar-ādhisthānam <sup>60</sup> | Vittēça-nivēṣita-
- 34 ñ=ca | yac=ca Çaka-krīḍā-çani<sup>74</sup>-dṛḍha-pañjarēṇa Gurjjar-ādhirājaprajarēṇa<sup>75</sup> dur-d danta <sup>76</sup>-Gauḍēndra-kari-kūṭa-pākalēna
  - 67 Read samprāpya.
  - 58 Metre of verses 13-15: Vasanta-ti/akā.
  - 59 Read ratnopamo narapatih as in the Sualknei grant.
  - 60 Read final m for  $\dot{m}$ . Also read  $\ddot{a}dhisth\ddot{a}na\dot{m}$ .
  - 81 Read çōbhēta, as in the Suālkucī grant.
  - 62 Read vanijām nikaraih as in the Suālkucī grant.
  - 63 Read 'tha.
  - 64 Read bhānum, which is the reading of the Suālkucī grant.
  - 66 Read samveçya.
  - 66 Read tam.
  - 67 Read samvidrate.
  - 68 From here prose.
  - 69 Read cat.
  - 70 Read syandi.
  - 71 Probably read antar-hita.
  - 72 Read sthalī.
  - 73 Read bhōgi.
  - 74 Read çakuni, as in the Suālkucī grant.
  - 76 Read prajvārēņa, which is the reading of the Suālkucī grant.
  - 78 Read danta.

- 35 Kēral-ēç-ācalā-çilājatunā V(b)āhika-Tāik-āttaŋka<sup>77</sup>-kāriṇā dākṣiṇā-tya-kṣōṇi-pati-rājajanmaṇā<sup>78</sup> kṣa-
- 36 pit-ārāti-pakṣatayā kṣitipa-vakṣaḥ-kavāṭa-paṭēn=ēva prākārēņ= āvṛta-prāntham<sup>79</sup>=unmada-kala-hausa<sup>80</sup>-kāminī-ku-
- 37 la<sup>81</sup>-kuņita-pēçala-marun-mand-āndōlit-ōrmmi-çīkarair=upaçamitāpāvṛta-saudha-çikhar-ādhirūḍha-sundarī-**sura-**

### Second Plate: Reverse.

- 38 t-ōtsav-āyāsēna kailāsa-kari-dukula<sup>92</sup>-kadalikā-paṭē<sup>93</sup> nēka-nākēçakāminī-vibhrama-maṇi-darppaṇē-
- 39 na Lauhity-āmbhōdhinā virājamānam <sup>60</sup> | mānanīyam=anēka-**mana-** ka<sup>94</sup>-pati-sārthānām yathārth-ābhidhānam
- 40 Prāgyōtiṣ-ēṣa<sup>85</sup>-durjay-ākhya-puram=adhyuvāsa | yatra ca jaḍatā hāra-yaṣṭiṣu n=ēndriyēṣu cañcalatā hari-
- 41 şu na mānasēsu bhanguratā bhruvi bhramēsu na pratipannēsu s-ōpasarggatā dhātusu na prajāsu vāmatā kāmi-
- 42 nīṣu skhalitam madhu-mada-mudita-kāminī-gatiṣu nispṛhatā dōṣa-kāriṣu niratyaya-madhu-pān-āçaktir <sup>86</sup>=m=ma-
- 43 dhu-kāra-kara<sup>87</sup>-kulēṣu atyantaṁ pṛy<sup>88</sup>-ānuvarttanaṁ rathāŋganāmasu piṣit<sup>89</sup>-āçitā çvāpadēṣu tatra Vāsap-āvā-
- 44 sa-sparddhinī <sup>90</sup> vidhur=iva vivarddhita-çīla-vēlā-jaladhi-maṇḍalaḥ satru<sup>91</sup>-saras-ādarçita-padm-āpahāraç=ca mārtta-
- 45 nda iya bhū-bhṛc-chirō-nivēçita-pādaḥ kamal-ākar-ōdbhāsanal<sup>33</sup>-lāṣaç<sup>92</sup>=ca paramēçva-
  - 77 Read bāhīka-tāyik-ātaŋka or bāhlika-tāyik-ātaŋka.
  - 78 Read yakşmanā.
  - 79 Read prāntam.
  - 80 Read hamsa.
- <sup>81</sup> In the original kula is only just traceable, but in the Snalkuci grant it is distinct.
  - 82 Read dukūla.
  - 83 Probably read  $paten = \bar{a}n\bar{e}ka$ -
  - 84 Perhaps read mānaka.
  - 86 Read Prāgjyōtis-ēça.
- <sup>86</sup> Read  $\bar{a}$  saktir. In the original the first  $\bar{a}$  of  $p\bar{a}$  n $\bar{a}$  cakti is cancelled; but the real intention may have been to cancel the second  $\bar{a}$ ; for  $p\bar{a}$  na-sakti would give the same meaning.
  - 87 Cancel kara.
  - 88 Read priy.
  - 89 Read piçit.
  - 90 Read Vāsav-āvāsa-sparddhini.
  - 91 Read catru.
  - 92 Read lasaç.

- 46 rō'pi Kāmarup-ānandi<sup>93</sup> Bhaum-ānvayō 'py=ullāsita-dānav-āriḥ puruṣ-ōttamō 'py=a-da-
- 47 nārddanō <sup>94</sup> vīrō 'pi mattēha<sup>95</sup>-gāmī yasā <sup>96</sup> ca Manmath-ōnmāthi-rūpam tiraskṛt-āmbhōdhi-
- 48 gāmbhīryam jagad-vijay-āçansi<sup>96</sup>-vīryam Skand-āskandi-vīryam yaç=c=Ārjjunō yaçaṣi<sup>97</sup> Bhī-
- 49 masēnō yudhi Kṛtāntaḥ krudhi Dāvānalō vipakṣa-vīrudhi Çaça-dharō vidyā-nabhasi Ma-
- 50 lay-ānilaḥ su-janu-sumanasi Sūryō 'ri-tamasi Uday-ācalō mitr-ōd-gama-sampadi ya<sup>98</sup> l
- 51 mahārāj-ādhirāja-çr**ī-V(b)rahmapāla-varmma-dēva**-pād-ānudhyā-ta-paramēçvara-parama-bhaṭṭārakō
- 52 mahārāj-ādhirājaḥ çrī-Ratnapā<sup>99</sup>-varmma-dēvaḥ kuçalī **|| \* ||** Uttara-kūlē trayōdaça-grāma-viṣay-āntaḥpāti-Vā-
- 53 madēva-pāṭak-āpakṛṣṭa-bhūmi-samēta-lābu-kuṭi-kṣētrā 100 dhānya-dvi-sahasr-ōtpattika-bhūmau ı yathāyathaṁ samupasthi-
- 54 ta-v(b) rāhmaṇ-ādi-viṣaya-karaṇa-vyāvahārika-pramukha-jānapadān rāja-rājñī-rāṇak-ādhikṛtān=anyān=api rā-
- 55 janaka-rājaputra-rājavallabha-prabhṛtīn yathā-kāla-bhāvinō'pi sarvvān mānanā=pūvvakaṁ 101 samādiçati viditam=a-
- 56 [stu] bhavatām bhūmir=iyam:02=vāstu-kēdāra-sthala-jala-gōpracār-āvaskar-ādy-upētā yathā-samsthā sva-sīm-ōddēça-paryantā
- 57 hasti-v(b)andha-naukā-v(b)andha-cauṛ-ōddharaṇa-daṇḍa-pāç-ōpari-kara-nānā-nivitt<sup>103</sup>-ōtkh**ē**ṭana-hasty-açv-ōṣṭra-gō-mahiṣ-āj-āti-

#### Third Plate: Obverse.

- 58 ka<sup>104</sup>-pracāra-prabhṛtinām<sup>102</sup>=vinivārita-sarvva-piḍā çāsanī-kṛtya t Pārāsarō 'bhūd=bhuvi Dēvadattaḥ Kā-
- 59 nvō 'grajō Vājasanēyak-āgryaḥ I āsādya yam 102=vēda-vidām parārddhyam trayyā kṛt-ārthāyitam=ēva samya-
  - 98 Read ānandī.
  - 94 So also the Suālkuci grant; but read ajanārddanō.
  - 95 Read mattebha.
  - 96 Read yasya.
  - 97 Read āçamsi and yaçasi.
  - 98 Read ca. Ya may be a Prākrit form, if it is not simply a clerical error.
  - 99 Read Ratnapāla.
  - 100 The reading is false; perhaps read kṣētrāyām, agreeing with bhūmau.
  - 101 Read pürvvakam.
  - 102 Read iyam; l. 58, prabhrtīnām, and l. 59, yam.
  - 103 Read nimitt.
  - 104 Read āvika, as in the Suālkucī grant.

- 112 Dr. Hoernle—Two Copper-plate Grants of Ratnapāla. [No. 1,
- 60 k 🛚 [1 🕦] Agny-āhitas=tasya v(b)abhūva sūnuḥ Sadgaŋgadattō 105 guṇa-çīla-çālī [1] yaṁ vīkṣya ṣaṭ-karmma-rataṁ dvijēṣaṁ 106
- 61 Bhṛgv-ādiṣu pratyayitō jan-aughaḥ [2] Çyāmāyikā tasya v(b)a-bhūva patnī pati-vratā çîla-guṇ-ōpannā 107 | ugrēndu-
- 62 lēkh=ēva virājatē yā viçuddha-rūpā tamasō nihantrīm 108 || [3 || ] Āsyāmm 109=abhūc=chāstra-vidām dhurīņas=trastrah 110 su-
- 63 tō 'ghāt khalu Vīradattaḥ I yam prāpya dharmm-āçrayam=ugrav(b)uddhim kālaḥ kalir=nyak-kṛta-vad=v(b)abhūva || [4 || ] Samkrāntau
- 64 Vipņupadyāñ<sup>111</sup>=ca pañca-vimç-āv(b)da-rājyakē | tasmai dattā mayā pitrōr=yaçaḥ-puṇyā-
- 65 ya c=ātmanam 112 || [5 ||] Sīmā pūrvvēņa vṛhad-ālyām çālmalīvṛkṣaḥ | pūrvva-dakṣiṇēna rū-
- 66 şi-gaṇa-pāṭhī-nau-sīmni khara-taṭa-stha-çālmalī-vṛkṣaḥ N dakṣiṇēna tan-nau-sīmni
- 67 v(b)adarī-vṛkṣaḥ | dakṣiṇa-paçcimēna tall³-nau-sīmni kāçimv(b)alavṛkṣaḥ | paçcimēna
- 68 khara-taṭa-sth-āçvatha-vṛkṣaḥ | paçcima-ga | uttara-ga-vakrēṇa āli 114 | kāçimv(b)a-
- 69 lā<sup>115</sup>-vṛkṣaç=ca | paçcim-ōttarēṇa kṣētr-ālyām hijjala-vṛkṣaḥ | pūrv-va-ga | uttara-ga-va-
- 70 krēņa kṣētr-āli 114 | çālmalī-vṛkṣau | punaḥ pūrvva-ga-dakṣiṇa-ga-vakrēṇa kṣētr-āli 114 | kāçimv(b)ala-vṛkṣau | ki-
- 71 ñ-cit-pūrvva-ga | dakṣiṇa-ga-vakrēṇa kṣētr-āli | l çalmalī-vṛkṣau | uttarēṇa vṛhad-ālyām kāçimv(b)ala-vṛ-
- 72 kṣaḥ ı uttara-pūrvvēņa vṛhad-ālyām vētasa-vṛkṣaç=c=ēti N

#### The Seal.

- 1 Svasti Prāgjyōtis-ādhipati-
- 2 mahārāj-ādhirāja-çrī-Ratna-
- 3 pāla-varmma-dēvaḥ ||
  - 105 Read Sadgangādattō.
- 106 Read dvijēṣu, the anusvāra is nearly obliterated. Perhaps it might also be intended for dvijēçam.
  - 107 Read opapannā.
  - 108 Read nihantrī.
  - 109 Omit the anusvāra.
  - 110 Read trastah. The second r, however, appears to be slightly obliterated.
  - III Read Visnupadyāñ.
  - 118 Read ātmunah.
  - 113 Read tan.
- 114 Read either āliḥ or ālī. There is in the original plate a trace of the long ī in line 11.
  - 115 Read kāçimbala.

#### TRANSLATION.

(FIRST PLATE: line 1) Hail!

- (Verse 1.) "He may be seen incessantly exhibiting his beautiful white figure, in the Tāṇḍava (dance) according to the strict rules of that dance, (guided) by the stainless reflection of his body formed on his own nails: even thus does Çaŋkara (or Çiva), who, though like the Supreme Being he is endowed with the quality of omnipresence (lit., expansion), assumes numberless forms at his absolute will, shine forth as the Lord of the World for the sake of the welfare of that (world).
- (2.) "What? Is it that here flows the light of the white rays (of the moon) in congelation, or a solution of crystals; or is it that the beautiful Çaŋkarī (or female counterpart of Çiva) and his Çaktī (or energy) is intently engaged in marking quick-time music in its prime-val form?" It may be with such musings as these about the nature of its water that the happy population (of the country) quickly resorts to that river Lauhitya (or Brahmaputra), which by removing all sins protects the world.
- (Verse 3.) Of **Hari** (i.e., Viṣṇu) who, in the form of a boar, raised the earth when she had sunk beneath the ocean, Naraka of the Asura (or demon) race was the son, who acted the very part of the moon to the personal charms of the ladies of the Suras (or gods);<sup>3</sup>
- (4.) Who, declaring Aditi to be a woman, weak, decrepit, timid, stupid, deserted by her kinsmen, and overtaken by misfortune, conquered the Suras, and snatched away her ear-rings which were precious as being typical of the glory of the Suras.
- (5.) In Prāgjyōtiṣa, the best of towns, provided with brilliant troops of warriors like systems of suns, and lovely-faced women of many kinds, he took up his residence, after he had acquired prosperity, equal in pleasantness to the pride of his arms.
- (6.) "I am grown too old (to engage) in war, and my father will gain a brilliant reputation," bethinking himself thus, out of kindly consideration, he lived carelessly: so Hari removed him to heaven.
- <sup>1</sup> The reading sōsaçvēva appears to be corrupt, and I can make nothing satisfactory of it. The Suālkucī grant here fails to help. I have taken sō as prakritic for sa; compare ante, line 50, ya, footnote 97.
- 2 Or, as Dr. Bloch suggests, it may be translated: "intently engaged in dividing the original current," of the heavenly Ganges in Çiva's matted hair according to the well-known mythological story.
- <sup>3</sup> The moon beholds the charms of the Apsarases; so did Naraka, of whom it is related that he "seized the daughters of the Gandharvas and of gods and men, as well as the Apsarases themselves." See Dowson's Classical Dictionary of Hindu Mythology, sub voce Naraka. Suggestion of Dr. Bloch.

Alas! for one who is keenly desirous of glory there is truly in this world no counting of kinship.4

- (7.) Then his wise son, Bhagadatta by name, whose shoulder was girt with the mantle of far-reaching glory, and who by the multitude of his good qualities won the affections of the (whole) world, carried upon himself the burden (of the government) of the country with propriety and much prosperity.
- (8.) Then the mighty Vajradatta, having like Vajrin (i.e., Indra), conquered his enemies, being in beauty like a large diamond, and enjoying the reputation of having achieved the conquest of the world through his own honesty and energy, obtained that kingdom of his brother, just as fire (attains) brilliancy on the setting of the sun,<sup>5</sup>
- (9.) After thus, for several generations, kings of Naraka's dynasty had ruled the whole country, a great chief of the Mlecchas, owing to a turn of (adverse) fate, took possession of the kingdom. (This was) Çālastambha. In succession to him also there were chiefs, altogether twice ten (i.e., twenty) in number, who are well-known as Vigraha-stambha and the rest.
- (10.) Seeing that the twenty-first of them, the illustrious chief **Tyāga Simha**<sup>6</sup> by name, had departed to heaven without (leaving) any of his race (to succeed him),

(Second Plate: obverse:) his subjects, thinking it well that a Bhauma (i.e., one of Naraka's race) should be appointed as their lord, chose Brahmapāla, from among his kindred, to be their king on account of his fitness to undertake the government of the country.

- A Naraka is said to have been slain by Kṛṣṇa, who is an incarnation of Viṣṇu or Hari. The latter was Naraka's father: hence the father slew his son. The poet represents this as a sort of voluntary sacrifice on the part of Naraka, who feeling himself too old for his accustomed warlike exploits, purposely, i.e., out of consideration for his father, lived in a careless fashion in order to afford his father an opportunity of slaying him, so that his father (Viṣṇu) might have the reputation of having slain the much-feared demon Naraka. The poet, however, cannot refrain from adding a word of disapproval of Viṣṇu's conduct in setting aside the claims of kinship for the sake of earning a reputation. This explanation was substantially suggested to me by Dr. Bloch.
- There is here a play on the word vajra, which means both 'the thunderbolt and 'a diamond.' Indra is called vajrin, or 'the wielder of vajra or 'the thunder bolt;' and Vajradatta or 'the gift of Vajra' is said to be as beautiful as a vajra or 'diamond.'
- <sup>6</sup> The meaning apparently is that the whole series consisted of 21 members viz., Çālastambha, 19 others, and Tyāga Simha. It is not clear whether the name of the last king is  $Qr\bar{\imath}-ty\bar{a}ga$  or  $Ty\bar{a}ga$ .
- T Verses 10 and 11 are two relative sentences (with yam and yasya) dependent on the demonstrative sa in verse 12.

- "Single-handed he overcame his enemy in battle: why indeed should this appear strange to his detractors, (seeing that) on this point Hara and Hari are examples, and Bhisma and indeed many others Thus arguing, his warriors have always thought very highly of (the conduct of) their home-staying (king), seeing that his enemies fled away in all eight directions.8
- (12.) His desire being stimulated by the taste of the joys due to his prosperity, he married a young woman who by reason of her devotion to her people bore the name of Kuladevi, which is, as it were, the standing name for Laksmi (or 'good fortune') attainable by (all) rulers sprung from any (noble) family of the world. 9
- By him, who had such a reputation, was begotten on her a son called Ratnapāla, who gained renown because his people justly concluded that a jewel-like king would, by his good qualities, foster the most worthy among them. 10
- By reason of the elephants' pearls, carried forth by the impetus of the unrestrainable stream of blood running from the split foreheads of the elephants of his enemies, 11 his (i.e., Ratnapāla's) battlefield looked beautiful like a market-place strewn with the stores of merchants, and ruby-coloured through (the blood of) the slain. 12
- Then having placed him (i.e., Ratnapāla) on the throne to be to the dynasty of Naraka what the sun is to the lotuses, he (i.e., Brahmapāla), the spotless champion, went to heaven; for noble-minded men who know the good and the evil of the world know to do that which is suitable to the occasion. 13

(Second Plate: obverse: line 28: Prose.) In his capital, the heat (of the weather) was relieved by the copious showers of ruttish water flowing from the temples of his troops of lusty (ware-)elephants which had been presented to him by hundreds of kings conquered by the power of his arms entwined in clusters of flashes of his sharp sword.

<sup>8</sup> Brahmapāla appears to have been of a mild and peaceable disposition; and this is the way that the poets expresses that fact. His son Ratnapala formed the strongest contrast to him, being a very strong and warlike ruler, with a very long reign.

<sup>9</sup> There is here a play on the word kula or '(good) family'. Kula-dēvī means a (goddess or) queen of good family or of all good families.

<sup>10</sup> There is here a play on the word ratna or 'jewel.' A ratna-upama or 'jewel like 'prince may be expected to become a ratna-pāla or 'jewel-protecting' king.

Il This refers to the well-known Indian fable of certain pearls which are found in the frontal protuberances of certain elephants.

<sup>12</sup> Both grants read pādmarāgī. The correct form, however, would seem to be pādmarāgā.

<sup>18</sup> The emendation samvidrate was suggested by Pandit Hara Prasad Shastri.

(that capital) was crowded with a dense forest, as it were, of arms of his brave soldiers who were hankering after the plunder of the camps of all his enemies, yet was it fit to be inhabited by wealthy people (merchants.) (In it) the disk of the sun was hid 14 (from view) by the thousands of plastered turrets which are rendered still whiter by the nectar-like 15 smiles of the love-drunk fair damsels (standing on them). frequented by many hundreds of well-to-do people 16, just as a forest planted on the heights of the Malaya mountains (is frequented) by snakes. It is adorned by learned men, religious preceptors and poets who have made it their place of resort, just as the sky is adorned by Mercury, Jupiter and Venus. 17 It resembles the summit of mount Kailāsa in being the residence of the Paramēçvara (i.e., supreme ruler, or Çiva, the supreme God), and in being inhabited by a Vittēça (i.e., a master of wealth, or Kuvēra the God of wealth). 18 Like the cloth which protects the king's broad chest, its boundaries were encompassed by a rampart, furnished with a fence strong like that used for the game-birds of the Cakas, fit to cause chagrin to the king of Gurjara, to give fever to the heads of the untameable elephants of the chief of Gauda, to act like bitumen in the earth to the lord of Kērala, to strike awe into the Bāhikas and Tāïkas, to cause discomfiture (lit., pulmonary consumption) to the master of the Deccan country; and generally to serve for the purpose of discomfiting the (king's) enemies. It is rendered beautiful by the river Lauhitya which gives relief to the fair damsels, that after the exertion of sexual enjoyment ascend to the retirement of their stuccoed turrets, by the spray of its current gently wafted up by the breeze charmingly resonant with the prattle of the flocks of love-drunk females of the Kala-hamsa ducks;

(Second Plate: reverse:) and which (river) also resembles the cloth of the finely wrought flags carried by the elephants of Kailāsa, and

<sup>14</sup> I have adopted the reading antarhita in my translation (see text, note 71). The original reads anta-hrta, which would mean 'obstructed by the ends' (or points) of the thousands of pinnacles.

<sup>15</sup> There is here a verbal conceit in the original which is untranslateable. Saudha means 'plastered,' and sudhā means both 'nectar' and 'whitewash.'

<sup>16</sup> There is here a complicated verbal conceit, which cannot be exactly translated. Bhōgin means both a 'well-to-do, pleasure-loving man' and 'a snake.' The Malaya mountains, with its fragrant breezes, will suit the former, while the forest will suit the latter.

Here is again a verbal conceit: budha means both 'a learned man' and 'Mercury;' guru both 'a religious preceptor' and 'Jupiter,' and  $k\bar{a}vya$  both 'a poet' and 'Venus.' The capital was to the men, what the sky is to the planets.

<sup>18</sup> There is here an obvious play on the words paramēçvara and vittēça which are epithets of the king as well as of a god.

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the jewelled mirrors used in their coquetries by the numerous females (i.e., the Apsarases) of the lord of heaven (i.e., Indra). It is an object of respect to merchants who are the owners of numerous (kinds of) wares. Such is the town in which the lord of Prāgjyōtişa took up his residence and which he called by the appropriate name of the 'Impregnable one' (durjaya). Here dulness might be observed in necklaces, but not in the senses (of the inhabitants); fickleness in apes, but not in their minds; changefulness in the motions of the eyebrows, but not in promises; accidents (happening) to things, 19 but not to the subjects. Here capriciousness might be seen (only) in women; reeling (only) in the gait of women excited with the (tender) intoxication of spring-tide 20; covetousnous (only) in evil-doers; safe addiction to the sipping of honey (only) in swarms of bees; exceeding devotion to love (only) in Brahmany ducks (Anas Casarca); and eating of flesh (only) in wild beasts. 21 In that town, which emulated the residence of Vāsava (i.e., Indra) 22, the king, who resembles the moon in that he makes his virtues to wax, as the moon makes the tides of the encircling ocean to wax, and in that he causes his enemies to experience the deprivation of their wealth, as the moon. causes the ponds to experience the deprivation of their lotuses 23; and who resembles the sun in that he makes his feet to rest on the heads of his enemies, as the sun makes his rays to rest on the summits of the mountains,24 and in that he delights in making his copper-mines lucrative, as the sun makes the lotus-ponds brilliant 25: who, being a Paramēçvara (or paramount sovereign), takes pleasure in (the country of) Kāmarūpa; who, though being of the Bhauma (i.e., of Naraka's) race, delights in being the enemy of the Danavas (or demons); who, being a Purusottama or 'perfect man,' does not act as a Janardana 26

<sup>19</sup> There is a double meaning in s-ōpasurgatā dhātuṣu which may be also translated 'the prefixing of prepositions (upasurga) to verbal roots (dhātu).'

<sup>20</sup> Madhu-mada might also mean 'intoxication with wine.'

<sup>21</sup> I have inserted "only," because probably oppositions are intended here just as in the preceding passage. Thus "capriciousness in women but not in men;" "reeling in love-drunk women but not in wine-drunk men;" "covetousness in evil-doers but not in other citizens;" "eating of flesh in wild beasts but not in men;" etc.

<sup>22</sup> I propose to read Vāsav-āvāsa-sparddhini. The Snālkucī grant reads Vāsav-āsparddhini.

<sup>28</sup> Padma is the lotus which closes at night, but it also signifies the wealth of Kuvēra, and hence 'wealth' generally.

<sup>24</sup> Pāda means both 'a foot' and 'a ray;' and bhū-bhṛt means both 'a king' and 'a mountain.'

<sup>25</sup> Kamal-ākara means both 'a lotus-poud' and 'a copper-mine.'

<sup>26</sup> There is here an untranslateable play on the words purusōttama and janārdana. Both are epithets of Viṣṇu, who is called puruṣōttama or 'the best of men,' but also

(or troubler of his subjects); who, though being a valiant man, walks (leisurely) like an elephant: whose figure is such as to outdo Manmatha (or the god of love); whose profundity such as to put into the shade the ocean; whose intelligence <sup>27</sup> such as to be a guarantee of the conquest of the world; whose valour such as to surpass Skanda (or the god of war): who is an Arjuna in fame, a Bhīmasēna in war, a Kṛtānta (or god of death) in wrath, a forest-conflagration in destroying his plant-like adversaries: <sup>23</sup> who is the moon in the sky of learning, the (sweet) breeze of the Malaya mountains in the midst of the jasmin-like <sup>29</sup> men of good birth, the sun in eclipsing his enemies, the mountain of the East<sup>30</sup> in the successful advancement of his friends: this king, the Paramēçvara, Parama-bhaṭṭāraka, Mahārājādhirāja, the illustrious Ratnapāla Varma-dēva, who meditates at the feet of the Mahārājā-dhirāja, the illustrious Brahmapāla Varma-dēva, may he prosper.

(Second Plate: reverse; line 52.) With reference to the land producing two thousand (measures of) rice, and the fields with the clusters of gourds, together with the inferior land of the hamlet of Vāmadēva, (the whole) situated on the northern bank (of the Brahmaputra), within the district of the "Thirteen Villages," the king sends his greetings and commands to all and several who reside (there): to the

janārdana or 'the troubler of men,' because he excites or agitates them. The king, on the contrary, is declared to be a puruṣōttama, but not a janārdana. There is, in fact, a verbal conceit involved, in every one of the phrases descriptive of the king. Thus paramēçvara is an epithet of Çiva who is an ascetic and takes no pleasure in kāma-rūpa (or attractive things); the king, on the contrary, though he is a paramēçvara, or rather because he is paramēçvara or 'supreme ruler,' takes pleasure in Kāma-rūpa (his country). Again Naraka was himself a Dānava, but the king, though of Naraka's race, delights in being an enemy of the Dānavas. But the word dānavāri may also be divided into dāna or 'gift,' and vāri or 'water,' i.e., the water, the out-pouring of which is symbolical of the grant of a gift. In that case the passage means that the king, though of Naraka's (i.e., of Dānava) race, yet delights in giving presents to Brāhmans.

- 27 I propose to read  $dh\bar{\imath}rya\dot{m}$ , because  $v\bar{\imath}rya\dot{m}$  recurs immediately in the following sentence. V and dh are apt to be confounded in writing.
- 28 There is an untranslateable conceit in the word vīrudhi, which may also be spelt virudhi. Spelt vīrudh, the word means 'a plant;' spelt vīrudh, it means 'stopping.' With the latter spelling, the passage would mean that the king is like a forest-fire in stopping his enemies.
- 29 Sumanas may be any flower, but especially the sweet-scented Jasminum grandiflorum. The Malaya mountains were famous for their breezes laden with the sweet scent of their fauna. The king, in the midst of his flower-like aristocracy, wafts, as it were, their sweet scent over the country.
- 30 There is a verbal conceit in mitrodgama which may also mean 'the rising of the sun;' that is, what the eastern mountains are to the rising sun, that the king is to the advancement of his friends.

(common) people of the Brāhman and other castes, headed by the district revenue officers and their clerks, as well as to the other (higher-class) people, such as the Rājanakas, Rājaputras, Rājavallabhas, etc., and above them the Rāṇakas, Rājñis, and Rājas; and, in fact, to all who may reside there in future at any time.

Be it known to you, that this land, together with its houses, paddy-fields, dry land, water, cattle-pastures, refuse-lands, etc., of whatever kind it may be, inclusive of any place within its borders, and freed from all worries on account of the fastening of elephants, the fastening of boats, the searching for thieves, the inflicting of punishments, the tenant's taxes, the imposts for various causes, and the pasturing of animals, such as elephants, horses, camels, cattle, buffalos, goats and sheep, as set forth in this charter:—<sup>31</sup>

(Third Plate: line 58: verse 1.) There was a Brāhman in the land, Dēvadatta, of the Pārāsara Gōtra and the Kāṇva çākhā; a leader among the Vājasanēyakas, whom on having found to be the foremost vedic scholar, the Vēdas, in their threefold division 32, felt themselves satisfied.

- (2.) He had a son, Sadgangādatta, richly endowed with (every) virtue, who ever kept the holy fire burning (in his house), and at the sight of whose devotion to the six holy duties 33 a multitude of people were established in their faith in the whole body of Brāhmans from Bhrgu downwards.
- (3.) He had a wife, Çyāmāyikā, devoted to her husband and endowed with (every) virtue, who shines like the streak (crescent or quarter) of the moon, pure in form and dispelling the darkness.
- (4.) From her was born a son, Viradatta, a leader among the learned in the Çāstras, and fearful of (committing) any offence, on the experience of whose deep-seated piety and formidable intellect the Kali age felt, as it were, humbled.
- (5.) To him, on the Viṣṇupadī Sankrānti,<sup>34</sup> in the twenty-fifth year of my reign, (this land) is given by me for the sake of the good and the glory of my father and of myself.

<sup>31</sup> The sentence which breaks off here, is resumed below in verse 5.

<sup>32</sup> Referring either to the three Vēdas, or to the three vedic sciences of hymn, sacrifice and song. The reading ākṛt-ārthāyitam, however, is not quite intelligible to me.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup> The six duties are: studying and teaching the Vēdas, offering sacrifices and conducting them for others, giving and receiving gifts.

<sup>34</sup> There are four of these; viz., the instants of the sun's entrance into the four Hindū signs vṛṣa (taurus), simha (leo), vṛṣcika (scorpion) and kumbha (aquarius) which are also the beginnings for the four months Jyēṣṭha, Bhādrupada, Mārgaçīrṣa and Phālguna. The first of these is probably intended here.

(Its) boundaries (are as follows): On the east, the Çālmalī-tree <sup>35</sup> on the big dike; on the south-east, the Çālmalī-tree standing on the steep bank (of the river Brahmaputra) by the anchorage of the boats for the Pāṭhī fish of the Rūṣi-class; <sup>36</sup> on the south the Badarī-tree by the same anchorage of boats; on the south-west the Kāçimbala-tree by the same anchorage of boats; on the west the Āçvatha-tree standing on the steep bank (of the river); at the bend to the north-west, the dike of the fields, as well as a Kāçimbala-tree; on the north-west the Hijjala-tree on the dike of the fields; at the bend to the east and north, the dike of the fields and a pair of Çālmalī-trees; further at the bend to the east and south, the dike of the fields and a pair of Kāçimbala-trees; at the slight bend to the east and south, the dike of the fields and a pair of Çālmalī-trees; on the north, the Kāçimbala-tree on the big dike; and on the north-east, a Vētasa-tree on the big dike.

#### The Seal.

Hail! The lord of Prāgjyōtiṣa, the Mahārāj-ādhirāja, the illustrious Ratnapāla Varma Dēva.

## II. THE SUĀLKUCĪ GRANT.

This grant and its seal exactly resemble the Gauhatī and Bargāon grants, as may be seen from the photographs (Plates XII and XIII). The plates measure  $12\frac{1}{16}$  by  $8\frac{1}{4}$  inches and are protected by a slightly raised rim on all four sides. The seal measures  $4\frac{3}{16}$  by  $3\frac{1}{8}$  inches.

The grant is in a rather bad state of preservation. Originally there were three plates. The first plate is missing, and consequently the inscription on the outer (or obverse side) of the second plate has greatly suffered from corrosion. In addition, there has been applied much injudicious cleaning, before the plates were placed in my hands, in consequence of which the inscription throughout the grant has been rendered very difficult of decipherment. In fact, it would have been impossible to fully decipher it, but for the help afforded by the Bargāon grant, with the greater part of which happily the Suālkucī grant is

<sup>35</sup> The trees here mentioned are: Çālmalī, Bombax malabaricum; Badarī, Zizyphus Jujuba or Jujube tree; Kāçimbala, an inferior kind of Çimbala, which I cannot identify; Āçvatha, Ficus religiosa; Hijjala, Barringtonia acutangula; Vētasa, Calamus Rotang.

<sup>38</sup> The  $p\bar{a}th\bar{i}$  is a kind of sheat-fish (Silurus Pelorius), also called  $p\bar{a}th\bar{i}na$ , and in Bangālī  $r\bar{o}y\bar{a}l$ . The term  $r\bar{u}si$  I cannot identify; it might be connected with Sanskrit  $r\bar{o}hisa$ .

identical. The only difference appears to be in the statements referring to the land and the person to whom the land was granted.

The two sides of the first (originally second) plate have 19 lines each. The second (originally third) plate has 7 lines. The inscription on the obverse of the former plate probably commenced with the word phala on 1.21 of the obverse of the second plate of the Bargāon grant. The reverse of that plate commences with the word [pri-] yānuvarttanam, the syllable pri being at the end of the obverse side; and this word stands on line 43 of the reverse of the second plate of the Bargāon grant. The formal part of the Suālkucī grant ends in its 37th line (the last but one on the reverse side of the existing first plate) with the phrase çāsanī-krtya, which stands in the 58th line (the first of the 3rd plate of the Bargãon grant). From here the remainder of the Suālkucī grant is occupied with the portion peculiar to it, describing the grantee and the granted land.

The mechanical execution of the Suālkucī grant is, if anything, still more slovenly and inaccurate than that of the Bargāon grant. A glance over the extracts, given below, will show numerous blunders. There are, however, a few variants, which appear to be genuine differences of composition; e.g., l. 14, kalahansa-gāminī (for kalahamsa-gāminī) 'females walking like kalahamsa geese,' l. 24, Bhīṣmō dhanusi; or which actually offer more suitable readings, as in l. 11, kṛḍā-çakuni (for krīḍā-çakuni), and in l. 33, mahiṣ-āj-āvika.

Palaeographically the Suālkucī grant does not differ in any way from the Bargāon grant. The guttural nasal y is throughout made without a ringlet. Only once, in 1. 12, tanka, it is represented by the anusvāra; but this case is not above suspicion, because the reading here is defective; see the extract below. The anusvāra is formed by a ringlet and placed above the line. The special final form for n occurs in l. 10,  $j\bar{a}napad\bar{a}n$ , and l. 11,  $prabhrt\bar{i}n$  and  $sarvv\bar{a}n$ . The special final form of t occurs in 1. 21, bhrt, and in 1. 34 'bhūt. The special final form of m occurs, twice, in 11. 23 and 24 vairyam; as a rule, however, the anusvāra is used; thus in 1.9, mandalam, 1.10, alaykāram, 1.16, sārthānām, and 1. 23, gambhīrya[m], where the Bargāon grant has the special form. The initial short i, made by two ringlets placed above a hook, occurs in 11. 3 and 34, iti, 1. 40, ista; but in 1. 21, the hiatus with iva, which the Bargāon grant shows, is avoided in the Suālkucī grant by the insertion of a euphonic r. The avagraha occurs in 1.25, çūryō'ri, where it is omitted in the Bargaon grant. It appears also to be intended, in 1.40, by the mark of interpunctuation.

Regarding the probable date of the Suālkucī grant, see the remarks on the Bargāon grant. It is not dated in any era, but professes to have been issued in the 26th year of the reign of Ratnapāla.

In the following transcript I shall only quote such portions of the Suālkucī grant as differ in any respect from the corresponding portions of the Bargāon grant, or as show the same irregularities. The portion peculiar to the Suālkucī grant is transcribed in full.

#### Text.1

## Second Plate: Obverse.

- 1, phala etc., ending with samprāptā-lakṣmyāḥ sthitam=i- (see Bargāon grant, ll. 21 and 22).
- 2, va ..... apparently ratnopamo narapati etc. (cf. l. 23.)
- 4, ..... padma-rāgī çōbhētā vīra-vaņijām nikaraih etc. (cf. ll. 25, 26).
- 5, ..... bhānum samvēçya tā (sic) etc. (cf. l. 127):
- 6, ..... sat-opāyanī sa-mada etc., omitting kṛta (cf. l. 29).
- 7, ..... syāndi-dāmvu (sic) ...... samupasamitu (sic) ...... luņṭanal-lampaṭa etc. (cf. 11. 29, 30).
- 8, ... nivāsa-yōgyam 1 ...... sundarī-chudhā (sic) ...... sikhar-ādhi-ruḍha-sahasr-ānta etc. (cf. 11. 31, 32).
- 9, ..... sthali-ruham i kānanēm=iy=ānēka-bhōgi-sata ..... nabhōvammēvāpta (sic) (cf. l. 32, 33).
- 11, ..... kṛḍā-çakuni-dṛḍha² ..... prajvarēṇa etc. (cf. l. 34).
- 12, ..... Kēralē I sa-calā-çilājatuḥ nā (sic) Vāhika-taṁka etc., omitting Tāïka (cf. l. 35).
- 13, ..... rājajakṣmaṇā I ..... vakṣaḥ kapāṭa etc. (1. 35, 36).
- 14, ..... kalahansa-gāminī į kulah kuņita-prēçala (sic) ..... ōrmmi į çikar-āsāram=upaçamitā etc. (cf. 11. 36, 37).
- 15, ..... ādhirūdha | ..... patē nākiça (sic) (ef. 11. 37, 38).
- 76, ..... anēkamanaksa-pati etc. (cf. 1. 39).
- 17, ..... adhyuvāsya (sic) 1 ..... yastisu 18 n-ēndrayēsu etc. (cf. 1. 40).

#### Second Plate: Reverse.

- 20, y-ānuvarttanam | ... piçitā svāpadēşu | ... Vāsav-āsparddhini | etc., omitting çitā (cf. 11. 43, 44).
- 21, ndalam i çatru-sarasām darppita..... mārttanda r=iva bhū-bhṛt-chirō-nivēçita-pādam i ..... odbhāsana-lā- (cf. ll. 44, 45).
- 1 From the original plates.
- The akṣara dha stands below the line.
- 3 This mark of interpunctuation is placed almost regularly after each clause.

- 22, laçaç4=ca ..... kāmārūpā | nandi ..... dānavāri | paruṣōttamō (sic) py=adanārddanō | etc. (cf. 11. 46, 47).
- 23, pi mattēha-gāmī ya | sā ..... rūpā | ..... gambhīrya | ... āsansivairyam | etc. (cf. 11. 47, 48).
- 24, ndi-vairyam 1 ...... yaçaşi I Bhişmō dhanuşi 1 etc. (cf. 11. 48, 49).
- 25, ..... Çūryō'ri-tamasi 1<sup>3</sup> etc. (cf. l. 50).
- 26, sampadī ya 1 ...... pādānudhyātaḥ paramēçvaraḥ parama-satāra-(sic) (cf. ll. 50, 51).
- 27, ...... çrīmān=Ratnapāla-varmma-dēvaḥ kuçalī ‖ 强 ‖ Kala-
- 28, ŋgā-viṣay-āntaḥ-pāti-dhānya-tri-sahasr-ōtpattika-ha-kṛṣṭā<sup>5</sup>-bhūmau yathāyatham samupasthita-v(b)rā-
- 29, hmaņ-ādi etc. (cf. l. 54).
- 33, ..... nānā-nimitt ..... mahiṣ-āj-āvika-pracāra-prabhṛtīnām etc. (cf. 11. 57 58).
- 34, ..... çāsanī-kṛtya N 6 Bhāradvāja-sa-gōtrō Vājasanēyī Çṛkāṇva<sup>7</sup> çākhō'bhūt I bhaṭṭō V(b)ala-dēva iti khyāta-
- 35, h çruta-vinaya-sampannah || [1 ||] Āsīt-pratihata-narakō v(b)a-hu-vibudha-vandyamāna-caraṇa-yugmah | × × × × × ma × × × × .8
- 36, s=tat-putrō Vāsudēv-ākhyaḥ II [2 II] Lakṣmīr=iva jana-sēvyā bhāry=āsīd=asya vallabhā sādhvī I c=Chēppāyik=ēti viditā saddharmmā va-
- 37, rṇa-bhūṣaṇā<sup>9</sup> ramyā || [3 ||] <sup>10</sup>Tāsyām=ajāyata sutō bhuvi Kāma-dēvaḥ çaktyā<sup>11</sup> manō-ramatayā jita-kāma-dēhaḥ | kāntiḥ
- 38, samasta bhuvanam hi çaçāŋka-çubhrā yasy=āniçam=bhramati bhūri vibhūṣita-dyauḥ  $\|[4\,\|]^{12}$  Pitrōḥ svam=puṇyam=uddiçya  $^{13}\times\times\times\times\times$

## Third Plate: Obverse.

- 4 The first akṣara ça is superfluous.
- 5 Perhaps read hala-kṛṣṭa.
- 6 Metre of verses 1-3: Āryā.
- 7 Read Grīkāņva.
- 8 Ten akşaras are here illegible.
- 9 The reading is uncertain.
- 10 Metre: Vasanta-tilakā.
- Il Reading uncertain.
- 12 Metre: Qlōka.
- 13 Here 8 akṣaras, or a quarter-verse, are illegible.
- 14 The bracketed portions are uncertain.

- 40, (n=s)aha-sīmni iṣṭak(ēndrasy)=ōpari ça'(va)ra-mūla<sup>15</sup> | khōḍ-āmv(b)ra-vṛkṣau | pūrvva-dakṣiṇēna (dakṣī<sup>16</sup>)-pāṭī-naukī-sa-
- 41, ha-sīmni Vētasa-vṛkṣaḥ | dakṣiṇēna Sadhava-naukī-saha-sīmni Hijala-vṛkṣaḥ | dakṣiṇa-paçcimēna (Bhayaka)-
- 42, ma-vṛkṣaḥ | paçcimēna Candē-naukī-saha-sīmni adhunā-rōpita-Çālmalī-vṛkṣah | paçcim-ōttarēṇa Kalaŋgā-
- 43, daņdi-dakṣiṇa-pāṭaḥ | pūrvva-ga-vakrēṇa Sadhava-Kalaŋgā-daṇḍi-dakṣiṇa-pāṭa-stha-Cōraka-vṛkṣaḥ | dakṣiṇa-ga-vakrē-
- 44, ņa kula-sont-ottara-pāṭaḥ | pūrvva-ga-vakrēṇa Sadhava-kulasont-ottara-pāṭa-stha-Varuṇa-vṛkṣaḥ | uttara-ga-vakrēṇa Hija-
- 45, la-vṛkṣaḥ | uttarēṇa Diyamv(b)ārāñjal-ōttara-pāṭaḥ | uttarapūrvvēṇ=āli-mastaka-Vētasaç=c=ēti ||

#### The Seal.

- (1) Ōm svasti Prāgjyōtiṣ-ādhipaty-anva-
- (2) yō mahārāj-ādhirāja-çrī-Ratna-
- (3) pāla-varmma-dēvah II

#### TRANSLATION.

## Second Plate: Reverse.

(Line 34; verse 1.) There was a learned Brāhman, called Baladēva, full of holy lore and good conduct, who belonged to Bhāradvāja's gōtra and the Çrikāntha çākhā of the Vājasanēyins.

- (3) He had a loving and chaste wife who, like Lakṣmī (the goddess of good fortune), was honoured by the people. She was known by the name of Chēppāyikā, 18 a woman charming, true in faith, and an ornament to her caste.
- (4) From her was born a son Kāmadēva who on earth by his power and his charm excels Kāma, the god of love; for his beauty, brilliant like the moon, and illuminating the heavens, incessantly wanders through the whole world.

<sup>15</sup> Probably read mūlė 'khōd-āmbra.

<sup>16</sup> Perhaps read daksina.

<sup>17</sup> Here the original text is illegible. There are 11 akṣaras—all short, as the metre shows,—of which only one (the seventh) ma is legible.

<sup>18</sup> This appears to be a vernacular name, the Sanskrit equivalent of which I do not know.

Its boundaries are (as follows): On the East, at the anchorage of the boats of the Cande men, and at the foot of the Saravā above the brickfield there are a walnut and a mango tree. On the North-east, at the anchorage of the boats of the men (located) on the southern terrace, there is a Vētasa-tree.19 On the South, at the anchorage of the boats of the Sadhava men, there stands a Hijjala-tree. On the Southwest, there stands a Bhayakama(?) tree. On the West, at the anchorage of the boats of the Cande men, there stands the Calmali-tree which has been recently planted. On the North-west, there is the southern terrace of the boatmen of Kalanga. At the bend on the East, there is the Cōraka tree, standing on the southern terrace of the boatmen of the Sadhava (portion of) Kalangā. At the bend on the South, there is the northern terrace of the Sonta 20 of the (river's) bank. At the bend on the East, there is the Varuna-tree, standing on the northern terrace of the Sonta of the Sadhava (portion of the) river's bank. At the bend on the North, there is a Hijjala tree. On the North, there is the northern terrace of the Diyambārāñjala, and on the North-east, a Vētasa-tree on the highest point of the dike.

# The Seal.

Ōm ! Hail! the Mahārāj-ādhirāja, of the illustrious race of the lords of Prāgjyōtiṣa, the illustrious **Ratnapāla** Varma Dēva.

<sup>19</sup> Regarding the identity of the trees in this list, see ante, page 120, footnote 35. Of the Bhayakama tree I can make nothing, but the aksaras bhayaka are uncertain. I am unable to identify the Cōraka tree. It is commonly identified with Trigonella corniculata or Andropogon acicularis; these, however, are mere plants.

<sup>20</sup> I do not know what  $s\bar{o}nta$  means. It corresponds to dandi in the preceding clause.

A Note on the Identity of the great Tsang-po of Tibet with the Dihong.—By SARAT CHANDRA DAS, C.I.E., Rai Bahādur.

## [Read February, 1897.]

Sir Clements Markham, President of the Royal Geographical Society in his learned introduction to "Narratives of the Mission of George Bogle to Tibet," regarding the course of the Tsang-po wrote as follows:—"Beyond the point where the Lhasa route crosses the river, in longitude 90° 40′ E., the course of the Brahmaputra within the mountains is entirely unknown for a distance of about 400 miles, when, under the name of Dihong, the mighty stream emerges into the valley of Assam and becomes the Brahmaputra of the plains. Yet there can be no reasonable doubt that the Tsang-po of great Tibet and the Brahmaputra of the plains are one and the same river."

This question has occupied the attention of geographers for upwards of a century. In his instructions, dated 1774, Warren Hastings specially enjoined Mr. Bogle to inform himself respecting the course of the Brahmaputra. D'Anville, and afterwards Klaproth, believed that the Tibet river was the upper course of the Irrawaddy. In 1825 Captains Bulton and Wilcox were sent to explore its course. Bulton followed up the course of the Dihong, until he was stopped by wild tribes, while Wilcox crossed the water-parting towards Burma, and reached the banks of the Irrawaddy. From the point reached by Bulton on the Dihong, to the place where Manning crossed the Tsang-po, there is an interval of about 400 miles, and a difference of level of 11,000 feet. interval was entirely unknown till 1882 when I explored up to Sangri Khamar, a place situated to the east of the town of Chethang on the Tsang-po where it crosses 92° Lg., and Lama Ugyen Gyatsho, about 50 miles further east up to the confines of the province of Kongbu; and Kunthup has done, though not scientifically, further 200 miles, so that out of 400 now only about 50 miles remain to be explored.

In July 1880, a Lama of Gya-rong was despatched by the late

Captain Harman from Darjeeling to Tibet with orders to explore the country below Gyala Sing-dong and trace the great Tsang-po to the plains of India, or failing this, to throw marked logs into the stream at the lowest point reached. It was intended that due notice should be given by the Lama to Captain Harman of the period during which the logs were daily to be cast into the river, so that he might set watches at the place where the Dihong debouches into Assam, and thus prove the identity or otherwise of the great river of Tibet with the Brahmaputra. Kunthup, a native of Sikkim, who had previously accompanied the explorer Nima Sring to Gyala Sing-dong and who has since traversed Bhutān with Rinzing, was sent with the Gya-rong Lama as assistant. The proposed arrangements for casting logs into the Tsang-po fell through owing to the delinquency of the Lama, who having sold Kunthup as a slave in the Pema-koi country decamped to his home in Gya-rong within the Chinese frontier.

Kunthup having escaped from the hands of his master, reached Onlek a short stage from Mir Padam, or Miri Padam, a village situated on a plain on the Tsang-po, a resort of traders from Assam, and the abode of the Miri and Padam tribes, who are known to inhabit the country near the place where the Dihong breaks through the hills into Assam. He was informed at Onlek that Miri Padam was about three days' journey or 35 miles from the nearest plains of India. also saw the haze of India from Onlek in an easterly direction when looking down the river. According to native report and also legend, the Tsang-po enters a deep rocky gorge at the foot of a rocky mountain which has the appearance of a lion's face and is therefore called Singdong, from sing a lion and dong a face. Kunthup describes the falls of the Tsang-po below the Pema-koi monastery as a cascade of some 150 feet in height, and mentions the prismatic colours of the spray hanging over the dark basin or lake below the cliff. This rock is called Shin-jeshējal, i. e., the place of interview with the Lord of the Dead. Shin the dead, jē lord, and shē-jal an interview.

Since then Mr. Needham, a political officer, resident near Sudya in Assam, has explored a part of the mountainous country, inhabited by Mishmi and other wild tribes, up to the borders of Za-yul, but has not succeeded in following up the course of the Dihong. The inscription before us and the letter of Mr. Barnes, quoted below, go to prove that the Dihong is the great Tsang-po, as it was conjectured by the late General Walker. The wooden block on which the inscription is, came down from the Tsang-po. It must have belonged to some one of the Nin-ma monasteries of Tibet or to the monastery of Pema-koi, the last of the Buddhist institutions of Tibet, situated to the further East of

Tibet. My friend and tutor Lama Sherab resided twelve years at the Pema-koi monastery and knows the country well. The charm contained in the inscription is corrupt Sanskrit written in Tibetan and repeated twenty-five times. It belongs to the Nin-ma-pa or the older red-cap School of Tibet. The following is a transcript:—

- (1). ह्य यहं सरे अभलभवेरीजल यहं सरे हैं के परे हैं.
- नहीं हुत्स अनुष्याय अनुष्युः॥ नहीं हुत्स अनुष्याय अनुष्युः॥
- (1.) Ōm, vajrasatva! samayam=anupālaya, vajrasatva! tvē nō patiṣṭha; driḍhō mē bhavasu, toṣyō mē bhavasu, pōṣyō.

(2.) mē bhava, anuraktō mē bhava, sarvasiddhi mē prayaccha, sarvakarmasu ca mē cittam çrēyaḥ kuru.

(3.) Hūm-ha-ha-ha-ha-hōḥ! Bhagavan Sarva-Tathāgata! vajram mē muñca, vajri bhava mahāsamaya satva-āḥ!

## Translation:

- (1.) Ōm, vajrasattva! keep thy duties; O vajrasattva, ground us upon thee; be strong to me, be delighted with me.
- (2.) Be kind unto me, be cheerful unto me; grant me every success, and in all my actions make pure my heart!

Line 3 seems rather untranslatable.

The letter of Mr. H. C. Barnes, Assistant Commissioner of Dibrugarh, dated the 22nd October, 1896, is as follows:—

"I enclose a print taken from a piece of wood found in the Brahmaputra a few miles above Dibrugarh a short time ago. When brought in, it appeared that the block was meant for printing from, as, though the surface of the letters was clean, the whole of the carved out portion of the wood, *i.e.*, the space between the letters, was covered with what looked like ink. Moreover, though no one could say what the writing was by mere inspection of the block; some Khamptis on seeing a print taken from it, declared that it was a Lama, i.e., Tibetan, writing. You will observe that the lines are similar, so that a translation of one will give the meaning of the whole. I should be obliged if you would send me a translation and also inform me what the block was used for. If my conjecture that it was used for printing from is wrong and the Khamptis have misled me, I can send you a rubbing of the block.

"The block is about  $2\frac{1}{2}$  inches thick and it has no marks on the sides or back to show that it has ever been fastened to anything else. It is supposed to have been brought down the Dihong by the last flood, which was probably caused by the breaking through of a dam formed across the Dihong by a former landslip. The flood rose to a great height in one night in fine weather and no other river came down in flood except the Dihong. The piece of wood was found by an Assamese who was looking for firewood."

Numismatic Notes and Novelties, No. III. Ancient and Mediæval India.— By Vincent A. Smith, I.C.S.

(With Plate XIV.)

[Read April, 1898]

## INDO-BACTRIAN.

I.

#### TELEPHUS.

Copper or bronze, rectangular, measuring '95 by '85 inch (= about 25 x 21 m.m.), and about '15 thick. Weight 131 gr. [RAWLINS].

Obv. Zeus (or king) seated l., on throne with back; his r. hand advanced; in his l., sceptre.

Greek legend,  $BA\Sigma I \wedge E\Omega\Sigma$  (left) EYEPFETOY (top) [T]H $\wedge$ E $\Phi$ OY (right).

Rev. Figure (? female) to r., seated in crouching attitude, with r. arm extended; l. arm not visible.

Kharōṣṭhī legend, Maharajasa (on right) Kaliṇakrama (? on top) sa Tēliphasa (damaged, on left).

This very remarkable piece has recently been obtained by Mr. J. P. Rawlins at Haripur in the Hazāra District of the Panjab.

The figure of Zeus resembles that on the reverse of the  $\Sigma\Omega THPo\Sigma$  coins of Hermans (B. M. Catal., p. 65, Pl. XV, 7). The reverse device is unique, and I am unable to explain it.

The reading of the king's name in Greek is certain. The Kharōṣṭhī equivalent could not be deciphered without the help of the Greek.

The coinage of Telephus is of extreme rarity, and has heretofore been known in silver only. The Elliot hemidrachm in the Bodleian cabinet was considered unique until Von Sallet identified two duplicates of it among the unnamed coins of the Guthrie collection at Berlin (Von Sallet, p. 131).

Professor Gardner (B. M. Catal., p. 171) describes the Bodleian specimen as follows:—

1 No. I. appeared in this Journal for 1897, Vol. LXVI, Part I, p. 1 ff.; No. II, appeared on p. 298 ff., of the same.

Obv. ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ EYEPΓΕΤΟΥ ΤΗΛΕΦΟΥ. Giant (Skythes?), his body ending in three serpents; holds in each hand, hammer (?)

Rev. Kharōṣṭhī legend, Maharajasa palanakramasa (or perhaps, pālanakṣamasa) Teliphasa. Helios radiate, facing, clad in tunic and chlamys, holds long sceptre; beside him male figure wrapped in mantle, wearing wreath, or horned; in field, mon. Weight 37. Diam. 7.

The long epithet which is the Prākrit equivalent of εὖεργέτου appears to be the same on the new coin as on the previously known hemidrachms. The reading is unfortunately doubtful.

Lassen read parakaramasa, which, as Von Sallet remarks, is certainly erroneous.

Cunningham suggested kalānakramasa. Von Sallet reads kalana-(or kalaka-) kramasa.

I agree that the first character is ka, and that the second consonant is l. But the new coin shows a short vertical stroke across the horizontal line of the l, which converts the character into li, or  $l\bar{e}$ .

The third character, a hook turned to the right, is certainly either the cerebral n, or the dental n. The first element of the word therefore reads kalina, or  $kal\bar{e}na$ .

Lengthening the vowels it may be read as  $k\bar{a}l\bar{i}na$ , (or  $k\bar{a}l\bar{e}na$ ), and the whole compound taken as  $k\bar{a}l\bar{i}nakramasa$ . Mr. Bendall's  $p\bar{a}lanak\bar{s}amasa$  does not seem to be admissible. But, though  $k\bar{a}l\bar{i}nakramasa$  seems to be a good reading of the letters, I do not understand how that form can be used as a translation of  $\epsilon \nu \epsilon \rho \gamma \epsilon \tau o \nu$ , 'benefactor.'

#### INDO-BACTRIAN.

II.

#### PEUKELAUS.

Copper or bronze, square. Diameter '95×'85. Weight 142 gr. From Bannū District, west of the Indus. [RAWLINS].

Obv. Male figure, to front, looking I., wearing hat and short coat.

Legend, [BASINE  $\Omega$   $\Delta$  IKAIOY KAI] SOTHPOS TEYK[E-  $\Lambda$ AOY]

Rev. City, turreted, standing, with r. hand outstretched over mon., and palm over l. shoulder.

Kharōṣṭhī legend, [Maha]rajasa dhramikasa tradatasa Peukalaüsa.

This interesting coin is unfortunately in poor condition, and a photograph of it cannot be distinct.

The coins of Peukelaus were published for the first time recently by Mr. C. J. Rodgers, who briefly noticed two specimens, (apparently obtained at Peshāwar?), of which one belonged to Sir Alexander

[1 I have not the slightest doubt that the reading of this word is kalaṇakramasa, or in Sanskrit kalyāṇakarmaṇaḥ, which corresponds exactly to the Greek sὖεργέτου.—Ed.].

Cunningham, and the other to Mr. L. White King.<sup>1</sup> The coin now published is, therefore, the third known specimen.

Cunningham called the figure on the obverse Apollo, and that on the reverse Demeter. I cannot say whether or not the figures were the same as those on Mr. Rawlins' coin. I cannot find the obverse figure on any other Bactrian coin.

The reverse figure is that of a turreted personified city, as on the square bronze coins of Hippostratus, with Triton obv. (B. M. Catal., p. 60, Pl. XIV, 6). The mon. on the coin of Mr. Rawlins' is the same as that on the coin of Hippostratus with horseman reverse (ibid. Pl. XIV, 6).

It is clear, therefore, that Peukelaus was approximately contemporary with Hippostratus.

The legends  $\triangle IKAIOY$  KAI  $\Sigma \Omega THPo\Sigma$ , and dhramikasa tradatasa indicate that the period of Hippostratus and Peukelaus is not far removed from that of Menander. The same inference is suggested by the use in the Greek legend of the minute dot form of omikron.

The early part of the Greek legend is illegible, but the word  $\Sigma\Omega THPo\Sigma$  can be read, and most of the letters of the Kharōṣṭhī legend can be made out on the original coin. The king's name is certain,  $\Pi EYK$ , in Greek, and  $Pe\ddot{u}k$  in Kharōṣṭhī, being distinct.

The name Peukelaus necessarily recalls to the mind that of the city Peukelaitis or Peukelaotis, mentioned by several Greek writers. Arrian tells us that in the dominions of the Assakenoi (probably the Açvakas) there was a great city called Massaka, the capital, and that, there was another city of great size, called Peukelaitis, not far from the west bank of the Indus.<sup>2</sup>

This city seems to be the same which is described by Hiuen Tsiang under the name of Po-shi-kie-lo-fa-ti, or Puṣkalāvatī, which was situated across a great river about 9 miles (50 li) north-east of Kaniṣka's famous monastery at or near Peshāwar. The "great river" must be the Kābul. The distance stated by the Chinese pilgrim indicates that the site is to be looked for at the Nicetta or Nisattha of the maps rather than at Hashtnagar, where it is placed by Cunningham.<sup>3</sup>

If Peukelaïtis and Puṣkalāvatī are identical, which is not exactly proved, it seems quite possible that the Greek name may be derived from the name of the king Peukelaus, and not, as has hitherto been assumed, from a Prakrit form of Puṣkalāvatī.

<sup>1</sup> Num. Chronicle for 1896, p. 269.

<sup>2</sup> McCrindle "Megasthenes and Arrian," p. 180. Arrian was born about A.D. 90, and lived to an advanced age. The date of king Menander is approximately B.C. 100.

<sup>8 &</sup>quot;Reports" II, 90; XIX, 96-110: Vivien de St. Martin in Julien's Hiouen Thsang, III, 308.

#### NORTHERN SATRAPS:

#### III

#### SATRAP TARAKI.

Copper, circular; diam. 6. Wt. 19 gr. obverse slightly convex, and reverse concave. Thin. [RAWLINS].

Obv. Bust to r., bare-headed, or wearing closefitting cap. Traces of Brāhmī letters in front of face. Dotted circle.

Rev. Legend in two lines, occupying field, in border :-

[महाच]वप, [Mahākṣa]trapa.

तरिक Taraki.

This remarkable coin comes from the Bannū District. The characters are those of the northern alphabet of about the beginning of the Christian era, and closely resemble those on the known coins of the Northern Satraps of Mathurā.

## KUŞAŅA.

#### IV

#### KADPHISES I.

A. Copper, Diameter 8. Wt. 63 gr. Rather thin coin, without rim. [RAW-LINS.]

Obv. Bust to r., apparently bareheaded, Greek legend on r. margin,  $KoZoY \wedge o$   $KA\Delta \lceil O \mid \Sigma o Y \rceil$ .

Rev. Soldier marching to r., wearing crested broad-brimmed hat, and armed with a long spear and convex shield.

Kharosthī legend — la kaüsa kuşa —.

V B. Copper, Diameter •7. Wt. 73 gr. Thick coin, with raised rim on reverse. [Talbot.]

Obv. Bust to r., with a more Parthian appearance than that of A. Greek legend not distinctly legible, though apparently the same as on A.

Rev. Device as on A, in better preservation. Kharōṣṭhī legend in perfectly preserved letters, Kaüsa kuṣanasa.

The two coins above described have been sent to me by their owners from the Hazāra District. Mr. Talbot's coin first arrived, and was not fully intelligible until Mr. Rawlins' specimen was received.

The Greek legend Kozoulo Kad proves that the coin must be assigned to Kozoulo or Kozoula (Kh. Kujula) Kadphises, and not to Kadaphes, on whose coins the tribal name is written with the initial aspirate (Gr.  $\chi o \rho a \nu \sigma v$  and Kh. Khuṣanasa), and the name or title of the king is written Kuyula in Kharōṣṭhī and Kozola in Greek, instead of the corresponding kujula and kozoulo or kozoula on the coins of Kadphises I. But, as will be shown later, it is possible that Kadphises I. and Kadaphes may be identical.

The Kharōṣṭhī legend on these coins is new. The reading  $ka\ddot{u}sa$  is perfectly certain; the first character is ka, the second is initial u, and the third is sa. The A specimen preserves a character in front of

kaüsa, which seems to be la, the last syllable of kujula. I interpret kaüsa as an abbreviated genitive corresponding to Kadphisou in the Greek.

The reverse device is as novel as the legend.

When about to send this paper to the press I found that two coins of this type, (though not quite identical) had already been described by Cunningham (Num. Chron. for 1892, p.p. 46, 64, Pl. xiv. (iv), 5, 6.)

He describes the king's head as "helmeted" and reads the Greek legend as KoZoYΛo KA.....KoPΣAN: and the Kharōṣṭhī legend as kuyula kasasa kusana Yaviiasa. The second word on the coins now It is impossible to mistake the published is certainly kaüsa, not kasasa. character for u, which is a hook with loop at foot.

The following statement compares the newly discovered coins

with the related types previously known, which are:-

#### I. HERMÆUS.

Obv. Bust of the King r., diademed:-

## ΒΑΣΙΛΕΩΣ ΣΤΗΡΟΣΣΥ ΕΡΜΑΙΟΥ.

Rev. Throned Zeus.

Kharosthi legend, Maharajasa mahatasa Heramayasa.

The correct reading of B. M. Catal. p. 65; Von Sallet, p. 117). the Greek legend stērossu as an adjective in the genitive, the equivalent of mahatasa, is due to Mr. Rapson, in J. R. A. S. for 1897, p. 320.

## II. HERMÆUS AND KADPHISES I.

As above, with same legend stērossu. Obv.

Herakles, standing, facing, diademed, holds in r. hand, club; in l., lion's skin. Kharōṣṭhī legend, Kujula Kasasa Kuṣana yavugasa dhramaṭhidasa.

(B. M. Catal., p. 120; Von Sallet, p, 118.)

#### KADPHISES I. III.

Obv. Bust r., as in I and II.

Greek legend KoPoNA (or similar word, probably intended as an equivalent for Kuṣaṇa—the letters vary) KoZoYΛο (or KoZoYΛΑ) ΚΑΔΦΙΣοΥ.

Rev. Device and Kharōṣṭhī legend as in II. (B. M. Catal. p. 122; Von Sallet, p. 179).

#### IV. KADAPHES.

Obv. Head of the king r. diad. (closely resembling that of Augustus in the later years of his life). Greek legend XOPANEY ZAOOY KOZOAA ΚΑΔΑΦΕΣ.

Rev. Khusanasa yanasa kuyula kaphsasa sacadhramathidasa in Kharosthi.

seated on chair. (B. M. Catal. p. 123; Von Sallet, p. 180).

The above legends clearly show that the king Kozoula Kadphises (No. III) was a Kuşana chieftain, who reigned at first as colleague

of Hermæus, with the titles dhramathidasa, equivalent to δικαίου, and yavugasa (reading not quite certain), of unknown meaning.

I take kasasa in Nos. II and III as a genitive proper name, the equivalent of the Greek  $KA\Delta\Phi | \Sigma o Y$ , that is to say, Kadphises in the genitive case. The nominative case of the name in the Prākrit should

therefore apparently be Kasa, = Kadphises.

The meaning of kozoulo (kozoula) in Greek, equivalent to kujula (No. II and III) and kuyula (No. IV), is not yet ascertained. But it seems impossible to doubt that the Greek kozoulo, kozoula, or kozola, (No. IV), and the Prākrit kujula (Nos. II and III), and kuyula (No. IV) are all different forms of the same word. If Kadphises I. (No. III) is distinct from Kadaphes (No. IV) that word must be an epithet or title rather than a proper name. But I have a strong suspicion that Kadphises I. and Kadaphes were one and the same person, and that the epithet yavugasa of No. II is only a fuller form of the yauasa (=ZAOOY) of No. IV.

The king's name (in the genitive) is in the Prākrit:-

Kujula Kasasa — Nos. II and III.

Kuyula Kaphsasa — No. IV.

— la Kaüsa — new coins A and B.

I propose to treat all these forms, which should be in the nominative respectively Kasa, Kaphsa, and Kaü (?) as variants of a simple name, written in Greek as Kadphises or Kadaphes. Cunningham also identified Kadaphes with Kadphises. "Kozola-Kadaphes I take," he observes, "to be only a variant spelling of the same king's name, on the issue of a different mint. The head seems to be imitated from the coins of Augustus, his contemporary." (Num. Chron. for 1892, p. 46.)

KUŞAŅA.

VI.

KADAPHES.

# Buddha Type.

Thin copper or bronze coin; diam. '62; wt. 24 gr. Obtained on the Pūñc (Punch) border of the Hazāra Dīstrict. [RAWLINS.]

Obv. King, or god, standing, wearing diadem and fillet, holding spear upright in l. hand; r. arm extended. Peculiar mon. in l. field behind figure. Greek legend, of which only X⁰ is legible. probably part of X∘PAN∑Y.

Rev. Seated figure of Buddha, cross-legged; r. hand raised, holding?; l. hand on hip. A triangle (? delta) under elbow of r. arm. Kharōṣṭhī legend all round margin; the only characters plainly legible being kadaça below the figure. The ka is certain; the da may possibly be na; and the ça, having a loop at foot, may be read as çu.

This interesting coin is closely related to, though materially

different from, the B coin of the Buddha type, of Kadaphes recently described by me.1

That coin had the obverse device of Çiva and the bull. The coin now published has a figure standing to r., and no bull. The fragmentary Greek legend Xo induces me to ascribe the coin to Kadaphes, who transliterated khuṣanasa by XoPANZY. I have already intimated that Kadaphes and Kadphises I. may prove to be the same person. I regret that I am unable to offer any interpretation of the imperfect Kharōṣṭhī legend.

## KUŞAŅA.

VII.

#### Hoviska.

Brass, or very pale bronze. Diameter '65. Weight 58 grs. Collected in Hazāra District. [RAWLINS].

Obv. King, seated on throne, looking r.

Three-pronged mon. to l. The plethoric figure of the king recalls the coins of Kadphises II. (B. M. Catal., Pl. XXV, 6, 7).

Greek legend on 1., o(?)oo; on r., oK(?)AH(?).

The coin has been worn as an ornament, and a hole above the king's head has damaged one or two letters. There are certainly two os to l., and traces of a third. On the r., the first legible character is certainly o, and the third is A. The second and fourth are doubtful.

Rev. Two figures, standing, facing each other, the head of that to r. having been punched out. Both are clad alike in coats reaching to the knee. The figure to r. wears a sword.

Greek legend, beginning from r. top, is Aro oanaa, which should probably be read [BIZ]Aro oanaa. The second name is certain. The  $\Delta$  is the fifth form, and the N the third form in Cunningham's table of the Indo-Scythic Greek Alphabet (Num. Chron. for 1892, Pl. X). The letters Aro are also certain on the original coin.

This is a very peculiar piece. The effigy of BIZAΓο (Viçākha, a son and impersonation of Skanda) has hitherto been known only on coins of Huviṣka, associated with Skanda Kumāra (ΣΚΑΝΔο ΚοΜΑΡο); and with Mahāsēna (ΜΑΑΣΗΝο). (B. M. Catal., p. LXVI, 149, 150; Pl. XXXVIII, 22–24).

The name  $\circ ANA \triangle A \circ$  is new. The closely related form  $\circ ANIN-\Delta A$  (or  $\circ ANIN \triangle \circ$ ) is found on some rare coins of Huviska associated, with a figure of the Goddess Nike.

oANA $\triangle$ Ao may possibly be only a variant of oANIN $\triangle$ o, but is more probably a male deity, the star Vanañt. The effigy on the new

<sup>1 &</sup>quot;Num. Notes and Novelties, No. II" in No. 4 of Part I of this Journal for 1897.

coin seems to be male, rather than female, and there is no *iota* in the name. I suggest this identification with reference to Dr. Stein's remarks on  $\circ$ ANIN $\circ$ A, which are as follows:—

"With Verethraghna we may connect most appropriately the winged Goddess, who appears in the distinct type of a Nike holding wreath and trophy-stand on some rare gold coins of Ooerki (see No. VIII; Cat. p. 147). Her name, which, with a slight variation, is written both oanload and oanload, induces me, in conjunction with the very characteristic type, to identify her with the female genius, whose name vanainti uparatât 'victorious superiority' is invariably coupled in all formulas and invocations of the Avesta with that of Verethraghna (comp., e.g., Yaçna I. 6, Vîspered I, 6, Yasht XIV, o).

We prefer this explanation all the more to the hitherto accepted theory, which identified  $oANIN\Delta A$  with the star Vanañt (a male deity!), as it disposes effectually with [sic] the two difficulties involved by the latter; both the female representation of  $oANIN\Delta A$  and the Iota of the name are now easily accounted for, the former by the feminine gender of vanainti (uparatât), and the latter by the well-known phonetic influence of epenthetic i."

Inasmuch as the deity BIZAFo is found only on coins of Huviska, and the king's effigy is more like that of Huviska then that of Kaniska, I am of opinion that this coin with the effigies of BIZAFo and oanaal oanaao should be ascribed to Huviska.

## UNKNOWN DYNASTY (? of Odumbara.)

#### VIII.

#### BHĀNUMITRA.

Moderately thick die-struck silver (? base) coin. Diam. 75. Wt. 72 gr. [Talbot.]

Obv. Male figure standing to 1., wearing hat and tunic; l. hand on hip, r. arm extended across spear. Remains of legend outside spear. Behind figure, a snake on end.

Rev. A small elephant, with rider, in upper l. field, proceeding to l.

Legend in early Brāhmi characters श्रीभानुमित्रस, Çrī-Bhānumitrasa. The word Çrī is faint, to the l. of the rider's head, but clearly visible on the original coin. The upper part of the m is separated from the lower.

The reading of the reverse legend appears to be certain. The characters seem not to be earlier than B. C. 100 or later than A. D. 100.

This coin belongs to a group which has been described by Cunning-ham in association with the ancient coins of Odumbara or Kāngra.

The coins described by him are those of:-

 Rāja Mahādēva
 ...
 C. Anc. I. p. 68, Pl. IV, 5.

 Rāja Rudra Varma
 ...
 ibid. , Pl. IV, 6.

 Rāja Aja Mitra
 ...
 p. 69, Pl. IV, 7.

<sup>1 &</sup>quot;Zoroastrian Deities on Indo-Scythian Coins," Stein (Oriental and Babylonian Record, August, 1887).

Rāja Mahi Mitra	•••	ibid.	p. 69,	Pl. IV, 8, 9.
Rāja ? Dhara	•••	"	,,	Pl. IV, 10.
Rāja Bhānu Mitra	•••	,		Pl. IV, 12.
Ditto do.	•••	••	,,	Pl IV, 13.

But none of Cunningham's coins agrees exactly with Mr. Talbot's. The male figure device (which Cunningham calls reverse) of his figure 10 is identical with that of the piece now published, but the elephant side of Cunningham's coin had the legend in Kharōṣṭhī, not in Brāhmī characters.

Cunningham's fig. 12 depicts a coin which must, I think, be attributed to the same king as Mr. Talbot's coin. It is thus described:—

"Plate IV, Fig. 12. Æ. 0.55, weight 32 grains. Author.

Obv.-Elephant to l. Arian legend, Rajna Bhânu Mitasa.

Rev.—Bodhi tree and two Symbols, snake below. Indian legend, [Rajna] Bhânu Mitasa."

The combination of the snake and elephant connects it with Mr. Talbot's coin.

But I am doubtful as to the attribution of Cunningham's figure 13, which is thus described:—

"Plate IV., Fig. 13. Æ. 04. Weight 16 grains. Author.

Obv.—Symbols as on reverse of figure 12. Indian legend Bhanu Mitasa.

Rev.—Rayed disc of Sun (Bhânu) above a Buddhist railing."

So far as I can see, the symbols on fig. 13 are not exactly the same as those on the reverse of figure 12.

In fact, the coin depicted in Plate IV, 13, is a duplicate of the small coin of Bhānumitra depicted in Plate VII, 9, among the Pañcāla or Ahichatra coins. The Mitra coins do not invariably exhibit the characteristic incuse square.

When describing a small Bull and Bodhi-tree coin of [A] gi Mitra with incuse, Cunningham (Pl. VII, 16, page 83) observes that "this coin may, perhaps, belong to the Panjab."

Mr. L. White King possesses two minute coins of Bhadra Ghōṣa. One, of which I have a duplicate, is like Cunningham's Pl. VII, 11, with incuse distinct. The other has no distinct incuse.

The small coin of Bhānumitra figured in J. A. S. B. Pt. I for 1880 (Vol. XLIX), Pl. III, 8, shows the incuse square distinctly, and agrees in this respect with the ordinary Ahichatra coins. That piece was found at Ahichatra. Otherwise it agrees with Cunningham's Pl. IV, 13, and VII, 9, neither of which has any distinct incuse square.

Cunningham's treatment of the various Mitra coins of Ayōdhyā, Ahichatra, and the Panjab leaves much to be desired.

The Ahichatra coins were very fully described by Messrs. Rivett-Carnac and Carlleyle in J. A. S. B., Vol. XLIX, for 1880, Pt. I. pp. 27, 87, 138, Plates III, VII, VIII, IX, XVI, XVII.

The relations between the various groups of Mitra coins are extremely obscure.

The Lahore Museum (Catal., Part III, p. 126) possesses three specimens of Bhānumitra's coinage. No. 1, apparently a copper coin, weight 15 grains, and diam. 53. The type seems to be the same as that of Mr. Talbot's coin. No. 2, weight 35, diam. 50, resembles Cunningham's Pl. IV, 12. No. 3, weight 42, diam. 6, seems to be a slight variety of No. 2.

The Indian Museum seems to possess no coins of Bhanumitra.

#### IX.

## Toramana.

Copper. Diam. 65. Wt. 55 gr. Bought from Mr. Rodgers, who obtained the coin at Höshyärpur in the lower hills of the Jalandhar District, Panjab. [V. A. SMITH.]

Obv. King standing to front, r. arm bent, and probably holding arrow or sword; body bent at waist; l. hand grasping by middle bow with string turned outwards. Obscure, illegible characters under king's arm.

Rev. Sun in upper field, Below, तोर, Tōra, in large bold characters. Dotted circle.

This coin is a variety of the hitherto unique coin belonging to Mr. Theobald, which was published by Cunningham in Num. Chron. for 1894, p. 280, Pl. IX. (VII), fig. 17, and again by me in J. A. S. B., Vol. LXIII, Part I, p. 198, with woodcut. The coin first published had the string of the bow turned inwards.

#### X.

#### WHITE HUN.

Copper or bronze, rather thick; diam. .65; weight 49 gr. [RAWLINS].

Obv.—Bust to r. Faint legend in small apparently Brāhmī characters in front of face, पर-Pala--?

Rev.—Device obscure; it seems to me intended for a cock standing to l., with tail raised. Dotted circle.

This coin clearly belongs to the White Hun group, but I cannot further assign it.

#### XI.

#### Unkown.

Base metal. Diam. 55. Wt. 43 gr. From Rāwalpindī. [V. A. SMITH]. Obv.—Concave, with a peculiar wheel-like device. Rev. Convex blank.

I cannot guess what this piece is, and am not certain that it is a coin.

It seems to belong to the class noticed by Thomas in the following words:—

"In this instance, the square die is driven home upon one surface so as to give the coin a concavo-convex form, while the opposite face remains blank. The symbol within the square has the appearance of a rude quatrefoil. These coins are, as far as I know, unpublished; I have never met with any in the entire course of my own somewhat comprehensive search after local antiquities, nor am I aware from what section of the country the examples I quote were obtained; they now form part of the late Lord Auckland's collection in the British Museum. They are composed of silver considerably alloyed, and weigh from thirty-five up to forty-one grains." (Prinsep's Essays, Vol. I, 213).

# The Later Mughals (1707-1803).—By WILLIAM IRVINE, Bengal Civil Service (Retired).

#### [Read March, 1898.]

The following article is in continuation of that appearing on pp. 136-212 of the *Journal* for 1896, Vol. LXV Part I.

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#### CHAPTER IV.

# Farrukhsiyar.

# 1. THE MARCH FROM AGRAH TO DIHLI.

In the confusion and the darkness the Jāts plundered impartially the baggage of both armies. No fitting resting-place for the prince could be found, nothing but a dirty screen, all black from the smoke of cooking, and a small wooden platform. On this latter Farrukhsiyar seated himself and received the homage of his officers. It was not till three days afterwards that Sa'd-ullāh Khān (son of 'Ināyat-ullāh Khān), who had been Jahāndār Shāh's Lord Steward, produced the late sovereign's duplicate set of tents, which owing to their erection within a

walled garden, had escaped the plunderers. These were put up for Farrukhsiyar on the site of Jahāndār Shāh's encampment. 1

Having spent the night of the battle (14th Zū-l-Ḥijjah, 11th January, 1713), in the small tent erected on the field, the next morning, after a formal enthronement, Farrukhsiyar offered up his thanksgiving at the shrine of Shah Mushtag, and then marched one and a half kos to his camp. The Tūrānī leaders, Cin Qilīc Khān and Muhammad Amin Khān, Cīn, with many others who had served in the army of Jahāndār Shāh, tendered their submission. Shari'at-ullāh Khān ('Ubaid-ullāh) was also presented by Sayyid 'Abd-ullāh Khān. Written orders were issued to Asad Khān and Muhammad Yār Khān at Dihlī, and to many other subadars, enjoining them to seize the fugitive Jahandar Shah wherever he might be found. At the end of the day His Majesty paid a visit to Husain 'Alī Khān who was confined to his tents by his wounds. After the battle was over, he had been found about midnight lying naked and insensible under a heap of the slain. When informed of the victory, new life was breathed into him. The following day, the 15th (12th January), the emperor attended at the large mosque attached to Akbar's tomb at Bihishtābād Sikandra, and there heard the Khutbah read in his own name. More nobles and leaders now presented themselves. On this date 'Abd-ullāh Khān brought in as a prisoner A'azzu-d-din, who had been found hiding in the underground chambers of the mansion at Agrah known as Dārā Shukōh's. Public rumour asserted that Jahandar Shah and Zu-l-figar Khan had gone to Dihli: the latter had been seen at Mathura on the way to that place.3

On the 17th (14th January), a move was made to the neighbourhood of Bāgh Nūr Manzil, also known as Bāgh Dahrah. The stream of officers lately serving under Jahāndār Shāh continued to flow into the camp. As there was still great uncertainty about the future movements of Jahāndār Shāh, and a renewal of the struggle by Zū-l-fiqār Khān was feared, it was thought advisable to take steps to secure possession of the capital as quickly as possible. 'Abd-ullāh Khān

<sup>1</sup> Warid, 148b.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Yaḥyā <u>Kh</u>ān, 121 a, says that A'azzu-d-dīn and his wife were captured in a grove near Āgrah, and that Farru<u>kh</u>siyar ordered them to be kept prisoners. Kām Rāj's story, 52 a, is that they were found in a milk-seller's house.

<sup>3</sup> Kāmwar Khān, 126, Ijād, 100 b, Wārid, 148 a, Khāfī Khān, II, 724, 727.

<sup>4</sup> Of this grove the only thing now left is a large well, which from its size is known as the well of the 52 water-bags (Bāwān lāo kī kuā)—Tārīkh-i-Āgrah, Ḥusainī press, Fathgarh, p. 28. The site is three miles south of the fort, it is now within the cantonments, and is called Khawāspurah (private letter from Mīrzā Wiqār 'Alī Bēg, dated 20th February, 1893). The epithet Nūr Manzil was given with reference to the Emperor Jahāngīr's name, Nūru-d-dīn Muḥammad, Maāṣiru-l-umarā, III, 79.

was therefore invested with the usual dress of honour and despatched on this day (14th January, 1713), upon that service. With him went Cīn Qilīc Khān, Muḥammad Amīn Khān, Cīn, Ḥāmid Khān, Jān Niṣār Khān, Khwājam Qulī Khān, Luṭf-ullāh Khān, Ṣādiq, Turktāz Khān, and others. His orders were to attach all the property of the men belonging to the other side. An imperial rescript was also sent to Asad Khān by the hand of Ikhlāṣ Khān. It was then Farrukhsiyar's intention to follow as speedily as possible with the rest of his troops.¹

On the 18th (15th January, 1713), another visit was paid to Husain 'Alī Khān. The 19th was passed at the Tāj, where the tombs of Shāhjahān and his queen, Mumtāz-i-Maḥal, were visited. The Government of Akbarābād was confirmed to Sayyid Amīr Khān, Thathawi, or Sindhī, (grandson of Qāsim Khān, Namakīn).2 The jizyah, or poll-tax, was abolished after it had been levied for thirty-four years. the 20th submissive letters were received from Asad Khān at Dihlī, reporting the imprisonment of Jahandar Shah and the restraint placed on Zū-l-fiqār Khān. As Farrukhsiyar could not trust Asad Khān, it was decided to await full reports from 'Abd-ullah Khan before any further action was taken. On the 22nd the emperor attended the public prayers at the Great Mosque near the Cauk, or market-place, in the city of Agrah, gold and silver coins being scattered on the way. The next day 'Abd-ullah Khan sent the good news from Dihli that Jahāndār Shāh had been made a prisoner and Zū-l-fiqār Khān dissuaded from continuing his resistance. As there was no longer the same pressing necessity for haste, re-assuring letters were sent to Asad Khān, and a leisurely advance to Dihlī was ordered by the usual stages.3

On the 25th (22nd January, 1713), a start was made for Dihlī, the first camp being near Sikandrah. The other marches were, 27th, Sarāe Godrayah, 1st Muḥarram, Irādatnagar, 3rd, a place near Sarāe 'Azīmābād, between Mathurā (Islāmābād) and Bindrāban, 5th, Siyāī, 6th Shērgarh, 8th, Shāhpur, 9th, Sultānpur, 11th, near Fathpur, 12th, near Qabūlpur, 13th, Isma'ilpur, 15th (10th February, 1713), a grove in Khizrābād, five miles south of Dihlī city.

Mîrzā Muḥammad, 150, 151, Kāmwar Khān, 127, Ijād, 104 b, Khāfī Khān, II,
 727.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> For this man, see Blochmann,  $\bar{Ain}$ , 470, and  $Ma'\bar{as}iru$ -l-umāra, III, 74. The rock-salt plates and bottles from which he got his nickname are described in Anand Rām's  $Mir\bar{atu}$ -l-istilāh. For Amīr Khān himself, see M-ul-U, I, 303.

<sup>3</sup> For abolition of Jizyah, see B. M. No. 1690, fol. 163.

<sup>4</sup> Kāmwar Khān, 127, 128, Ijād, 105 a. Khāfī Khān, II, 728 and Ma'āṣir, I, 318, say the army arrived on the 14th Muḥarram at Bārahpulah, which is 13 miles nearer the city (Carr Stephen, plate 1). Sarāe Godrayah, Irādatnagar and Shērgarh, I have not traced. Mathurā and Bindrāban are well known. Siyāī (Seyee) and

# 2. 'ABD-ULLAH KHAN AT DIHLI.

We now return to Dihli. The first news of Jahandar Shah's defeat at Agrah was received at Dihlī after midday on the 15th Zū-l-Ḥijjah (12th January, 1713). We have already described the subsequent arrival there of Zū-l-fiqār Khān and Jahāndār Shāh, and the measures adopted by Asad Khān. Sayyid 'Abd-ullāh Khān, who started from Agrah on the 17th arrived at Barapula near Dihli on the 25th Zū-l-The principal men of the city came out to pay their respects,1 and on the same day Zū-l-fiqār Khān, to whom Ikhlās Khān had been sent, rode out to the camp. His interview with the new wazir lasted over an hour. The Sayyids never doubted for a moment that Asad Khān and his son, as soon as they presented themselves, would be admitted to favour and high office. Thus they thought it wisest for their own future benefit, to put the two men under an obligation by acting as their introducers. Sayyid 'Abd-ullah Khan promised his predecessor that, if he would entrust himself to his and his brother's care, they would arrange that he and his father should not only be presented to the new emperor, but that not a hair of their heads should be injured.2 Visitors returning from the Nawāb's camp met at the Turkmān gate of the city3 the retinue of Mahābat Khān, son of Mun'im Khān, who had just been released from prison along with Jahandar Shah's other prisoners. Amīnu-d-dīn Khān, who was one of them, found his way to Mathurā and was presented there to Farrukhsiyar on the 3rd Muharram (29th January).4

On the 26th Zū-l-Ḥijjah, 'Abd-ullāh Khān entered the city and occupied the mansion known as Ja'far Khan's. He busied himself in restoring order in the capital and the rest of the country. Khwāja Ḥusain (Khān Daurān), Ḥifz-ullāh Khān (son of Murtazā Khān), Murīd Khān and other partisans of the late emperor were seized and

Shāhpur are on Sheet No. 50, Sultānpur, Fathpur (F. Biloc, Qabūlpur, and Isma'īlpur on Sheet No. 49 of the Indian Atlas.

- Among others Mīrzā Muḥammad, the historian, with his brother and a cousin, was presented to the Nawāb by Lutt-ullāh Khān Ṣādiq. Bārahpulah is 3¾ miles south of the Dihlī gate of the modern city (Carr Stephen, Plate 1 and p. 209).
- <sup>2</sup> Yahyā <u>Kh</u>ān, 121b, calls the overtures made by Sayyid 'Abd-ullāh <u>Kh</u>ān to Asad <u>Kh</u>ān his "deceit" (farēb).
- 3 This gate is on the south side of the city, having the Dihlī gate between it and the river. See Constable's "Hand Atlas," Plate 47, and Carr Stephen, 244.
- 4 Mīrzā Muḥammad, 153, 157, Kāmwar <u>Kh</u>ān, 129, Yār Muḥammad, 26, <u>Kh</u>āfī <u>Kh</u>ān, II, 732, *M.-ul-u.*, I, 317.
- 5 It had belonged to Kokaltāsh Khān and was sometimes called 'Alī Mardān Khān's. A'zam Shāh had owned it in 'Ālamgīr's reign—(B.M. 1690, fol. 162a). It was afterwards granted to 'Abd-ullāh Khān.

their property confiscated. The same course was adopted with the estate of the late Kokaltāsh Khān ('Alī Murād). Sabhā Cand, Zū-l-fiqār Khan's chief man of business, who had been promoted by him to the office of dīwān of the Khāliṣah, or Imperial Revenue Office, with the title of Rājah, was summoned by 'Abd-ullāh Khān. Finding that this man was sent for, Zū-l-fiqār Khān began to fear for himself, and he told Sabhā Cand not to obey the order. 'Abd-ullāh Khān sent re-assuring messages and advised the ex-wazir not to interfere. Zū-l-fiqār Khān was not satisfied, until in a few days farmāns arrived, addressed to himself and his father, promising them the new emperor's favour. Some of these letters went so far as to promise his restoration to the office of wazir. As there was no other way out of the difficulty, Sabhā Cand was now sent in charge of Dāwar Dād Khān to Sayyid 'Abd-ullāh Khān. Sabhā Cand was put into prison and his house confiscated.'

## 3. DEATH OF ZŪ-L-FIQĀR KHĀN.

Although one month had barely elapsed since Farrukhsiyar had won an empire almost entirely by the exertions of the two Sayyid brothers, a party adverse to them had already been formed in the imperial camp. At its head was 'Ubaid-ullāh, Sharī'at-ullāh Khān, a Tūrānī, who when qāzī of Dhākah (Dacca) had acquired great influence over Farrukhsiyar. Allied with him were other personal friends and dependents of the new emperor, the principal man being Khwāja 'Āṣim (Aṣḥraf Khān), a native of Āgrah. Sharī'at-ullāh Khān, although possessing little capacity for high office, was a bold ambitious man, whose chief object was to clear his own road to power by destroying as many as possible of the old nobility, and sowing in Farrukhsiyar's heart the seeds of suspicion against the Sayyids, whom he hoped soon to supplant.

When it was known in Farrukhsiyar's entourage that Zū-l-fiqār Khān had visited 'Abd-ullāh Khān and that some kind of friendly proposals had been interchanged, it was resolved to interfere at once. The

<sup>1</sup> Mīrzā Muḥammad, 158.

<sup>2</sup> Afterwards Mīr Jumlah. To give him a status in the court he had been, made  $d\bar{a}r\bar{o}gha$  of the pages (Khawāṣṣ), on the 20th Zū-l-Ḥijjah (17th January, 1713) and the title of Ibād-ullāh Khān was conferred on the 26th of that month.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Afterwards Ṣamṣāmu-d-daulah, <u>Kh</u>ān Daurān, who was made dārōgha of the Audience Hall on the 1st Muharram (27th January, 1713).

<sup>4</sup> Mīrzā Muḥammad, 158, 159.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Yaḥyā <u>Kh</u>ān, 121b, makes out that Farru<u>kh</u>siyar asked the Sayyids for advice as to the conduct to be pursued towards Jahāndār <u>Sh</u>āh, Asad <u>Kh</u>ān, and Zū-l-fiqār <u>Kh</u>ān. 'Abd-ullāh <u>Kh</u>ān, Ḥusain Alī <u>Kh</u>ān and Lācīn Bēg held that on no

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man selected as their envoy was one Muhammad Ja'far, who had long been steward to Farrukhsiyar and had lately been raised to the title of Tagarrub Khān. As he was a native of Īrān, it was thought that he would be more trusted than any one else by Asad Khān and Zū-l-fiqār Khān, who were also from that country. Taqarrub Khān swore the most solemn oaths on the quran that no harm should happen to Asad Khān or his son. He hinted to them that it was dangerous to accept an introduction through the Sayyid brothers, as in secret Farrukhsiyar was already displeased with them, and was not likely to turn a gracious ear to any representation from them. Persuaded by these arguments, Asad Khān proposed that he and Zū-l-fiqār Khān should set out together. His son preferred that, in the first instance, Asad Khān should go alone, that they might see what sort of fate was in store for them. Asad Khān would not listen to any such proposal. He was convinced that, as their services could not be dispensed with, no harm could come Finally on the 15th Muharram the two nobles accompanied Tagarrub Khān to the camp at Khizrābād and passed the night in their own tents, it being arranged that they should be received in the morning. Their too ready acquiescence bears out the truth of the proverb, "When Death arrives, the physician becomes a simpleton."1

We are told by Wārid, I know not with what amount of truth, that after Zū-l-fiqār Khān's death the hand which Taqarrub Khān had employed in taking the false oath on the qurān began at once to wither. He could not move it, and it grew continually worse. He lived on asses' milk, he tried every remedy, nothing was of the least use. Thus the hand remained a witness to his false oath until three years afterwards his end came.<sup>2</sup>

On the 16th Muḥarram the presentation of Asad Khān and his son took place. Zū-l-fiqar Khān, as he entered the imperial enclosure, felt a presentiment of his impending doom. He said to his father that he would withdraw and greet the Emperor the next day, when on his march into the city. Asad Khān lost his temper and gave a sharp answer. Zū-l-fiqār Khān was silenced, and they entered the enclosure

account could they be allowed to live. Thereupon Farrukhsiyar decided that Asad Khān was innocent; but they were at liberty to kill the other two.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Yaḥyā <u>Kh</u>ān, 121b, cūn qazā āyad, tabīb ablah <u>sh</u>awad. Mīrzā Muḥammad, 159, Kāmwar <u>Kh</u>ān, 129, Wārid, 113, <u>Kh</u>āfī <u>Kh</u>ān, II, 732, 733.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> T. <u>Kh</u>. died on the 9th Rabī II, 1128, 1st April, 1716, *Tārīkh-i-Mḥdī*. Mīrzā Mhd., 261, says he died of diqq (hectic fever, consumption, atrophy), of which he had been seriously ill for one year. He left sons, one of whom, <u>Tāhir Khān</u>, was on the 7th Jumādī II, 1128 H. created Taqarrub <u>Kh</u>ān, see Kāmwar <u>Kh</u>ān, 163, 164.

together. Asad Khān went into the Justice Hall and sat down. His presence was announced to the Emperor. Farrukhsiyar came from the Chaplet tent (tasbīḥ-khāna) and Asad Khān rose, made his bow, and pronounced his salutation. The emperor advanced quickly, embraced him, took his two hands, and seated him close to himself. flattering remarks were pronounced and robes and jewels were brought, with which he was then and there invested. Asad Khān now said, "I have brought a culprit with me, may I hope for the pardon of his offences?" The Emperor replied, "Brother, let him be brought in." Zū-l-fiqār Khān came in, unarmed, his two hands tied together, and stood before the sovereign. Farrukhsiyar, making a gesture of repugnance at seeing his hands tied, ordered them in an agitated voice to be untied. The Khan was then told to approach. He came and fell at the emperor's feet, but he was raised up and embraced and kindly spoken to. A robe of honour and jewels were brought for him. Farrukhsiyar then, addressing Asad Khān, said that he was just on the point of starting for a visit to the shrine of Nizāmu-d-din Auliyā, 2 he (Asad Khān) had better go home and "Brother," that is, Zū-l-fiqār Khān, would remain. Before their arrival, the orders for the visit to the shrine had been given, and the imperial retinue and the men of the Haft cauki (personal guard) had all assembled. 3

Asad Khān returned to his tents and Zū-l-fiqār Khān remained in the emperor's camp. Farrukhsiyar rose and went out, saying to Zū-l-fiqār Khān, "I am going now; I must get something to eat and see "to my equipage; I will send some food for you, you can eat it here." He then went inside, leaving Zū-l-fiqār Khān seated with Khwāja 'Aşim. In a few moments trays from the imperial table were brought. Fearing that the food might be poisoned, Zū-l-fiqār Khān hesitated to eat. Khwāja 'Āsim, penetrating his thoughts, said: "If his lordship permit, this slave, too, will take a share." Thus reassured Zū-l-fiqār

<sup>1</sup> Mīrzā Muḥammad's account of Zū-l-fiqār Khān's death was obtained from a friend, whose truthfulness he fully believed in. This gentleman had gone that morning, in Indian fashion, with a dali or basket of fruit and vegetables from his own garden, to be laid at the new emperor's feet. By this means he had been admitted into the Privy Chamber and Justice Hall. Before he could come out, the approach of Asad Khan and his son was announced. When he tried to make his exit, he found that of those inside no one was allowed to leave the place. He was thus a witness of all that happened (M. Mhd., 161, 162).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Kāmwar Khān, 130, says "the Qutbu-l-aqtāb," i. e., the shrine of Khwāja Qutbu-d-dīn, Bakhtiyārī.

<sup>3</sup> M. Mhd., 160-2, Ijād 119 b, Wārid, 114.

<sup>4</sup> He had just been made Khān Daurān, Bahādur, Ijād, 119 a. His titles were afterwards added to, and he became Samsāmu-d-daulah, Mansūr Jang.

Khān began to eat. The Khwāja then remarked that to eat food in the tent used as Hall of Justice was not fitting, had they not better move to the screens outside and eat there? It so happened that two canvas screens had been put up in the space before the Hall of Justice, an entrance having been left at one end only. The two nobles came out. As soon as Zū-l-fiqār Khān had entered within the screens, and while Khwāja 'Āṣim was still outside them, the tent-pitchers with the greatest expedition brought the screens together and closed the entrance. In an instant about two hundred men, each armed with sword and shield, sprang from their place of concealment and drew up round the screen, shoulder to shoulder, leaving no space whatever between them. When the capture was reported to Farrukhsiyar who was seated in the Chaplet tent (tasbīḥ-khāna), 'Ibād-ullāh Khān, dārōgha of the Pages, 1 was sent out. Entering between the screens, he said loudly, "His "Majesty asks what reason there was for you to imprison Muhammad "Kām Bakhsh and inflict injury on his followers. Does it accord with "the rules of loyalty and of submission to a gracious master to act "thus to his sons?" Zū-l-fiqār Khān answered:—

"The imprisonment of Kām Bakhsh was by his father's order; "I was 'Alamgir's servant and Kam Bakhsh, his son. If he had told "me to make my father a prisoner, I should have obeyed."

After each answer 'Ibād-ullāh Khān returned to Farrukhsiyar and came back with a new demand. The questions and answers continued on this wise as follows:

- "You were generalissimo and chief adviser of Muhammad A'zam "Shāh. Was it fitting for a general to flee, as you did, and leave his "prince all alone?"
- "As long as he was alive, I remained with him; when he was "slain, what right had I to continue a contest in the field."
- "What was your quarrel with the martyred Prince, (i.e. 'Azīmu-"sh-shān, Farrukhsiyar's father)?"
- "He did not look on me with favour, thus I was not in a position "to join his side. All the officers of the State took one side or I, too, took a side; nor did I thereby commit any
  - "Why did you kill Mukhlis Khān and Rustam Dil Khān?"
- "I had nothing to do with that matter. These things were done "on the advice and by the instigation of Kokaltāsh Khān."
- "All the other princes survive: what was Muḥammad Karīm's "offence that you should seize him, bring him to your house, and slay

<sup>1</sup> Afterwards Mīr Jumlah, Mu'azzam Khān, Khān Khānān, Bahādur, Muzaffar Jang.

"him? Are you not aware that he was our brother, and that his blood cannot go unavenged?" 1

Zū-l-fiqār Khān, by this time, knew that his death was resolved on, and that any further display of meekness would avail him nothing. He changed his tone and returning taunt for taunt, cursed Farrukhsiyar and said, "If you want to kill me, kill me in any way you like, what is the use of all this talk." Upon this Lācīn Beg and several Qalmāq slaves 2 fell upon him, threw him to the ground, twisted the strap from a shield round his throat and strangled him. The others stamped upon his chest till the breath left him. But to make quite sure a dagger was plunged into his body several times. Ropes were tied to his feet and he was dragged to the outside of the railing in front of the public Audience Hall. There the body was left exposed. Officials were deputed to confiscate the houses and property of both father and son. Zū-l-fiqār Khān's retinue, which was drawn up outside the artillery park at the entrance of the camp, dispersed on hearing what had happened, and the men sought safety wherever they could find it. All this took place at the time of afternoon prayer.3

The official statement of the case against Zū-l-fiqār Khān, as found in Ījād, whose narrative was corrected weekly by Farrukhsiyar himself, follows the lines of the conversation reproduced above. The misleading letters and messages sent to him through Taqarrub Khān are exultingly referred to as an exhibition of consummate policy and statesmanship. 4

# 4. DEATH OF JAHANDAR SHAH.

On the same day that saw the end of Zū-l-fiqār Khān (16th Muḥarram, 1125 H., 11th Feb., 1713), Saif-ullāh Khān b was sent to the citadel with a letter in Farrukhsiyar's own hand-writing addressed to Muḥammad Yār Khān. The nāzim, although sorrowful at Jahāndār Shāh's fate, complied with the order and admitted the messengers. When the group of men entered the prison room, Lāl Kumwār shrieked,

<sup>1</sup> Mīrzā Muḥammad, 163-166.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The name is sometimes given as Ilācī Bēg and Dilācīn Bēg. Ījād, 119 b, and Kāmwar Khān, 130, say "Nūr Bēg and other Qalmāqs of the brotherhood of Ilācīn Beg." Khāfī Khān, II, 734, has Lācīn Bēg (Bahādur Dil Khān) "or as some say, one of the celās." Mhd. Qāsim, Lāhōrī, 172, describes the man as a servant of Khwāja Qutbu-d-dīn, son of Maulānā Sharf Ḥusain, Kajkīyah (?) He received the title of Bahādur Dil Khān at the request of Mīr Jumlah.

<sup>3</sup> M. Mhd. 166, Khāfī Khān, II, 734.

<sup>4</sup> Ijād, 116 a, Khizānah-i-'āmirah, 28.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> B.M. No. 1690, fol. 162 a says Taqarrub <u>Khān</u> (alias Nuṣrat <u>Khān</u>), Yaḥyā Bēg, was the messenger.

clasped her lover round the neck, and refused to let go. Violently forcing them apart, the men dragged her down the stairs. Then laying hands on Jahāndār Shāh, they tried to strangle him. As he did not die at once, a Mughal, with his heavy-heeled shoes, kicked him several times in a vulnerable place and finished him off. Word was sent to the nāzim that life was extinct, that an executioner was needed to cut off the head. Muḥammad Yār Khān, who was standing down below, bathed in cold perspiration, answered "What is left for an executioner to do? Cut off his head, and carry it to His Majesty." They cut it off. The body was then thrown into an open litter (miyāna) and the head placed on a tray (khwān). Half an hour after nightfall, they reached the camp with the lifeless head and trunk and laid them at the entrance to the emperor's tents, alongside the body of Zū-l-fiqār Khān. Lāl Kumwār was sent to the settlement of Suhāgpura, where the widows and families of deceased emperors lived in retirement.

#### 5. Procession into Dihlī.

Next morning, the 17th Muharram (12th February, 1713), Farrukhsiyar left Khizrābād and marching in state into Dihlī took possession of the palace and its citadel. The artillery of all sorts went in front. Behind the guns came the new emperor mounted on an elephant, and at his back sat 'Ibād-ullāh Khān (Mīr Jumlah) waving a peacock fan over his master's head. Largesse was scattered among the crowd as he went by. The head of Jahandar Shah was carried on the point of a long bambu held by an executioner seated on an elephant; his body was laid across the back of another elephant. The corpse of Zū-l-fiqār Khān, with head and feet bare, was tied by the feet to the tail of a third elephant. These followed about one hundred yards behind the elephant on which the emperor rode. The procession was met by Sayyid 'Abd-ullāh Khān (now Qutbu-l-mulk) near the city wall, at the inside of the Dihli gate. The crowd in the streets was immense, a greater had rarely been seen. Some of the spectators were unable to restrain their grief, their eyes filled with tears, lumps formed in their throats, and they muttered to each other, under their breath,

I Kāmwar Khān, 130, Ijād, 122 a, Khāfī Khān, II, 734, Khushhāl Cand, 395 a, Rustam 'Alī, 225 b. Suhāgpura (Hamlet of Happy Wives) or the Bēwa-Khāna (Widow-house) was one of the establishments (Kārkhānajāt) attached to the Court "where in the practice of resignation they pass their lives, receiving rations "and a monthly allowance," Dastūru-l-'amal, B. M. No. 6598, fol. 55 a. The name, Suhāgpura, may have been due to delicacy for the feelings of the ladies, or it was perhaps given in derision.

"Glory be to God! Yesterday lords over thousands, to-day fallen into this calamity." 1

The bodies of the unfortunate Jahandar Shah and of his wazir were thrown down on the sandy waste before the Dihli gate of the palace. Asad Khān's family, taking with them nothing but the clothes they had on, were removed in palkis from their house to one known as the pēshkhāna of Khān Jahān where they were kept under surveillance; and Tagarrub Khān, the new Khānsāmān or Lord Steward, brought in two elephants loaded with the jewels and jewelled vessels from Asad Khān's house, and also sixty-two of his horses. The fallen vicegerent himself had been forced to appear in the triumphal procession, into Dihli, seated in a palki and accompanied by a few men on foot, all that was left of his former grandeur. At the Akbarābādī mosque he was halted, and there he sat in his palki unheeded for four or five: hours, until Farrukhsiyar ordered his removal with his women to the office rooms of the Diwan above referred to. Some temporary screens were put up, and there he and his family sought shelter. Food was, sent to them at night by Husain 'Ali Khān.'

It was not till the 19th (14th February, 1713), that Arslān Khān received orders to bury the bodies of the murdered Jahāndār Shāh and Zū-l-fiqār Khān. The prince was laid in the vault of the emperor Humāyūn's tomb, at the side of other members of the family. Zū-l-fiqār Khān's remains were interred close to the shrine of Shaikh 'Aṭā-ullāh, which is situated at the gateway of the same tomb. Zū-l-fiqār Khān was a little over fifty-nine (lunar) years of age at the time of his death; he left no sons. No memorial was erected over him for several years. At length some of his eunuchs, who had been transferred to Sayyid Ḥusain 'Alī Khān, mentioned this fact to their new master. The Sayyid ordered a tomb to be built, and on a tablet were inscribed the following lines, composed by Asad Khān:—

1 Mīrzā Mhd., 168, Ijād, 123, Khūshhāl Cand, 395-b. The Dihlī gate is on the south side of the city, it is the one nearest the Jumna. Mīrzā Muhammad and his brother witnessed the entry into Dihlī from the roof of the Akbarābādī mosque, which is in the Faiz Bāzār, the street running north and south from the Dihlī gate of the city to the Dihlī gate of the fort. (Āṣāru-ṣ-ṣanādīd, 70, Carr Stephen, 246, 248). Khushhāl Cand, also, was one of the onlookers and "into the skirt of this "humble one, too, fell a silver rose, weighing seven māshas."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Kāmwar <u>Kh</u>ān, 131, Ijād, 124-b, <u>Kh</u>āfī <u>Kh</u>ān, II, 734, B. M. No. 1690, fol. 162-b.

i.e., "A hidden voice, lamenting with blood suffused eyes, said, 'Ibrāhīm' made of Ismā'īl a sacrifice'" (1125-H.).

In connection with these lines, Warid tells a story in praise of Asad Khān's strength of mind and vigour of intellect, even at the extreme age that he had then reached, which, if true, would seem rather to prove his want of common feeling. At the moment that his son's death was announced to him, he hung his head for a little while, and then said to the bystanders, "My thoughts repeatedly recur to "the words 'Ibrāhīm made of 'Ismā'il a sacrifice." As the numerical value of the letters in these words accords with the year of Zū-l-figār's death, the coincidence, if the words came spontaneously into his mind, was very wonderful. If not, this excogitating of a numerical puzzle was a curious use of the first moments following the news of an eldest son's violent death. As there was no member of the family left to support its name and fame, and Asad Khān now disappears from our history, it will be sufficient to note that he survived until the 25th Jumādi II 1128 H. (15th June, 1716), when he passed away at the great age of eighty-eight lunar years.2

Zū-l-fiqār Khān had obtained great renown as a soldier in the Dakhin, and there can be no question that he was a man of great experience in matters of state. But during the period that we are treating, commencing with the battle between A'zam Shāh and Bahādur Shāh in 1707, his generalship was prudently displayed more in furthering his own interests than in winning battles for the master that he might be serving at the moment. Dānishmand Khān ('Alī) has a passage, taunting him with his conduct in the battle of Jājau, and accusing him of acting on the maxim that discretion is the better part of valour. An anecdotist³ states that Zū-l-fiqār Khān offered the poet and historian a large sum if he would erase this passage from his work, but to 'Alī's credit be it said, the words still stand in the copies which have come down to us.4

I The father's original name was Ibrāhīm and the son's Ismā'īl, Ijād, 127-b Wārid, 147-a, Khushhāl Cand, 395-a.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Wārid, 146-b, Tārīkh-i-Muhammadī, year 1128-H., Kāmwar Khān, 165. Ma'āṣiru-l-umarā, II, 319, says 94 years; also Khāfī Khān, II, 771, where the year is 1129-H. Kām Rāj makes the age 98 years. An allowance of Rs. 50,000 a year had been given to him by Farrukhsiyar, B. M. Or. 1690, fol., 164a.

<sup>3</sup> Anand Ram, Mukhlis, "Camanistan," p. 22.

<sup>4</sup> Bahādur-shāh Nāma, B. M. Or. 24, fol. 37b. "The first to show his back was "Muḥammad Ismā'il, entitled Zū-l-fiqār Khān. To A'zam Shāh's face he made "great protestations, but instead of sacrificing his life, he made off at the earliest "moment. Receiving from an arrow a skin wound near the mouth, he cast away "his honour through excessive love of life. If he is abhorrent (mal'ūn) to the

The greatest blot on the life of Asad Khān and Zū-l-fiqār Khān is, however, the base ingratitude displayed towards Jahāndār Shāh. Even native historians do not defend this act of treachery. Shāh had many claims upon them for favours conferred; and he had placed his life in their hands. If Asad Khān had thought fit to excuse himself from joining any further in the prince's fortunes, he should have left it open for the fugitive to seek some other refuge. But he should not have seized him or delivered him over to his mortal enemy to be killed with indignity. Apart from this harsh and fruitless act, Asad Khān was superior in character to the other nobles of his time. He did little oppression, was long-suffering, full of dignity and of a handsome presence. He was of a correct disposition, which means, we are told, the showing of benevolence and sympathy to the lowly, and of ostentation and hauteur to your equals. His rise was rapid and unchecked, or as it is put, "he threw without intermission double-six "from the dice-box of desire." 1

#### 6. NEW OFFICIALS AND NEW APPOINTMENTS.

On the way from Agrah to Dihli, and after arrival at Dihli, many new appointments were made and new titles conferred. Sayyid 'Abdullāh Khān (now made Nawāb Qutbu-l-mulk, Yamīnu-d-daulah, Sayyid 'Abd-ullāh Khan, Bahādur, Zafar Jang, Sipāh-sālār, Yār-iwafādār) became chief minister. The dīwān-i-Khāliṣah, or Exchequer Office, was given to Muḥammad Bāqir, Muta'mid Khān, who had been for a time Prince Muḥammad A'zam Shāh's lord steward, and then dīwān, or comptroller of the household, to Prince Jahān Shāh; the dīwān-i-tan went to Lutst-ullah Khan, Bahadur, Sadiq, who in Bahadur Shah's reign was agent at Court of Prince Jahān Shāh, and in Jahāndār Shāh's was comptroller  $(diw\bar{a}n)$  to that sovereign's eldest son, A'azzu-d-din. Sayyid Husain 'Alī Khān, was appointed first Bakhshī with the titles of 'Umdatu-l-mulk, Amīru-l-umarā, Bahādur, Fīrūz Jang, Sipāh-sardār.2 As the reward for the Tūrāni betrayal of Jahāndār Shāh, the place of second bakhshī was conferred on Muḥammad Amīn Khān, Cīn, Bahādur, who now became I'timādu-d-daulah, Nuṣrat Jang. The third bakhshī

<sup>&</sup>quot;people, his excuse is notorious  $(ma'l\bar{u}m)$ . He had risen to fame and place in the "Dakhin; from his youth up, his training in valour had been in running after "the traces of the Marathas, a tribe of cats, whose occupation is robbing and "running away. He had never seen a battle between kings; had never met in "battle field with tigers from the forest of valour. In brief, to stand firm in such "violent contests you must be a hero."

<sup>1</sup> Ma'āṣiru-l-umarā, II, 317, 318.

<sup>2</sup> Shiw Das, fol. 2, has Mansur Jang, which seems a mistake.

was Afrāsyāb Khān, Bahādur, a Wālāshāhī, or personal follower of Farrukhsiyar, with whom he had been in Bengal and had there taught him wrestling.\(^1\) The pay-mastership of the Aḥadīs\(^2\) was given to Qamaru-d-din Khān, Bahādur, son of the above-named Muḥammad-Amīn Khān. Islām Khān (grandson of the late Islām Khān), formerly Mīr Ātash to Bahādur Shāh, who had retired from court, was restored to his rank of 5,000, 3,000 horse, and appointed to be first Mīr Tozak, or quarter-master-general.\(^3\) For the period of one month from the victory at Āgrah, Sa'd-ullāh Khān\(^4\) (son of 'Ināyat-ullāh Khān, Kashmīrī) was continued in the office of Khānsāmān, or Lord High Steward; but at the camp in Khizrābād, this office was transferred to Taqarrub Khān (Muḥammad Ja'far, Shīrāzī), who already held the place of Private secretary.\(^5\)

Some smaller court offices were conferred on Farrukhsiyar's personal favourites. Although these offices were of the second rank, their holders exercised, as we shall soon see, as much if not more power than the nobles who were nominally their superiors. For instance, against the opinion of Mīr Jumlah, who was officially no more than head of the pages and messengers, the chief minister himself found it impossible to act. The office of Confiscations and Escheats (buyūtātī) was given to Saif-ullāh Khān, Bahādur, a Wālā-shāhī; Khwāja 'Āṣim, now created Ṣamṣāmu-d-daulah, Khān Daurān, Bahādur, Manṣūr Jang, was superintendent of the Audience Hall and Bakhshī of the personal

¹ Afrāsyāb Khān, Bahādur, Rustam Jang, was Suhrāb, known as Mīrzā Ajmērī son of Garshāsp. He died at Dihlī on the night of the 25th Ramazān, 1130 H., 21st August, 1718, Tārīkh-i-Mḥdī. His elder brother was the Rashīd Khān sent in 1124 H., 1712, to oust Ja'far Khān, nāzim of Bengal, Gladwin, "Transactions," 96. Mīrzā Ajmērī was of such strength that once he lifted a small gun and its carriage out of the mud on the road from Akbarnagar to Rāj Maḥal, Akhbār-i-Muḥabbat, 277.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Aḥadī (one, single) means a gentleman trooper serving under no chief or noble, but directly under the Emperor.

<sup>3</sup> This Islām <u>Kh</u>ān (d. 1144 H., 1731-2), was one Mīr Ahmad, first Bar<u>kh</u>urdār <u>Kh</u>ān, then Islām <u>Kh</u>ān, son of Ṣafī <u>Kh</u>ān (d. 1105 H., 1693-4), the second son of 'Abdu-s-salām, first Ikhtiṣāṣ <u>Kh</u>ān, then Islām <u>Kh</u>ān, Mashhadī, (d. 1057 H., 1647-8), *M.-ul-u.*, I, 162, II, 740.

<sup>4</sup> His former titles were Hidāyat-ullāh <u>Kh</u>ān, and then for a time, after the death of Mun'im <u>Kh</u>ān, Bahādur <u>Sh</u>ah's Wazīr, he was Wazārat <u>Kh</u>ān. We shall speak of this man again presently.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Mīrzā Muḥammad, 169, Kāmwar<u>Kh</u>ān, 121, 143, <u>Kh</u>āfī <u>Kh</u>ān, II, 728, Wārid, 149b, Kām Rāj, 'Ibratnāmah, 53b. <u>Kh</u>āfī <u>Kh</u>ān says the third ba<u>kh sh</u>ā was <u>Gh</u>āzīu-d·dīn <u>Kh</u>ān (Aḥmad Bēg). Yaḥyā <u>Kh</u>ān, 122a, on the contrary, says that this man was made Mīr Ātash. This latter statement is confirmed by Mḥd. Qāsim, Lāhorī, 170, the date being 12th <u>Sh</u>a'bān, 1125 H., (2nd September, 1713), vice Zū-l-fiqār <u>Kh</u>ān (<u>G</u>ḥulām 'Ali <u>Kh</u>ān).

troops, or Wālā-shāhī; 'Ibād-ullāh (Sharī'at-ullāh Khān) created Muta'midu-l-mulk, Mīr Jumlah, Mu'azzam Khān, Khān Khānān, Bahādur, Muzaffar Jang, held the office of superintendent of the Khawāṣṣ, or attendants, and of the ghusl-khāna, or privy council room. 'Alī Khān, a wālā-shāhī, received the title of Zū-l-fiqār Khān, Bahādur, and the command of the artillery; being soon supplanted, however, (12th Sha'bān 1125 H., 2nd September, 1713), by Ghāzīu-d-din Khān (Aḥmad Bēg). This latter had already obtained charge of the retinue (jalau), vice Islām Khān, who had held it in addition to his principal office of Mir Tozak. The command of the cauki-khāss, or bodyguard, over to Faiz-ullāh Khān, a wālā-shāhī. Aminu-d-din was made Khān, Sambhalī, became head of the 'Arz Mukarrar, or office for the examination and confirmation of appointments. The department of Branding and Mustering  $(d\bar{a}gh - o - tash\bar{i}hah)$  was given to Sayyid Shujā'at-ullāh Khān, Bārhah, sister's son of Qutbu-l-mulk, the Wazīr. At first Fidā Khān was retained, as in Bahādur Shāh's and Jahāndār Shāh's time, as  $q\bar{u}r-b\bar{e}q\bar{i}$ , or head of the armoury; but the place was shortly afterwards transferred to Amīr Khān (Muḥammad Ishāq) son of the late Amīr Khān; then in a few months he gave way in favour of Khwāja Muzaffar, Pānīpatī, now created Zafar Khān, Bahādur, who was known by the nickname of Turrah-i-baz.3 The Sadarat-i-kull, or superintendence of charitable and religious grants, was given to Sayyid Afzal, who had taught Farrukhsiyar to read the qurān, with the title of Sayyid Afzal Khān, Bahādur, Şadr Jahān.4

The provincial governments were next provided for. Kābul was left in the hands of Nāṣir Khān, Bahādur, Nāṣir Jang. Kaṣhmīr was taken from 'Ināyat-ullāh Khān, whose manṣab even was cancelled, and

<sup>1</sup> Formerly Tahavvur Khān, then Fidā Khān, son of Ṣalābat Khān, Khwāja Mīr, Khwāfī, (d. early in 1104 H., 1693-4), M.-ul-u., II, 742, 745.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Afterwards 'Umdatu-l-mulk, A. K., assassinated 1159 H., 1746-7.

<sup>3</sup> Turrah, waving ringlets, or the hanging end of a turban; Turrah-i-bāz, 'a falcon's crest.' Zafar Khān and all his men wore their turbans in the same way, with an end sticking out, and from this peculiarity the nickname arose. Khushhāl Cand, 403b, explains that the Turrah were of gold and silk brocade (bādalah), and were used extensively as ornaments to Zafar Khān's equipage. In lot No. 698 in B. Quaritch's catalogue, No. 161, of July 1896, there was a portrait of Rōshanu-d-daulah (i.e., Zafar Khān) which I inspected. It showed a rather stout and not very tall man, with a broad and slightly heavy face, white beard and moustache, the latter slightly black still at the corners of the mouth. To the band or ribbon round the centre of the turban was attached an ornament (sarpec) and from it hung a long feather, falling backwards and ending in two small points. Perhaps this feather represents the Turrah-i-bāz?

<sup>4</sup> Mīrzā Muḥammad, 169.

he was replaced by Sādāt Khān, the new Emperor's father-in-law, to whom permission to govern by deputy was accorded. Zabardast Khān entitled 'Alī Mardān Khān (III), son of Ibrāhīm Khān, 'Alī Mardān Khān (II), son of Amīru-l-umarā, 'Alī Mardān Khān (I)2 died at Lāhor before he could be removed; he was replaced by 'Abdu-ṣ-ṣamad Khān, Bahādur, (subsequently made Dilēr Jang, after his victories over the Sikhs). Multan was conferred on Qutbu-l-mulk, the Wazīr, but Shēr Afgan Khān, Bahādur, (brother of Lutt-ullah Khān, Ṣādiq), who had been in charge on behalf of Kokaltāsh Khān ('Alī Murād) remained on as the deputy of the new governor). For the preceding fifteen or sixteen years Dihli had been held by Muhammad Yar Khan, and he was left undisturbed. Ajmēr was made over to Sayyid Muzaffar Khān, Bārhah (recently created Sayyid Khān Jahān, Bahādur), maternal uncle of Qutbu-l-mulk. Shahāmat Khān (son-in-law of 'Ināyat-ullāh Khān, Kashmīrī) who had been governor of Gujarāt in Bahādur Shāh's reign, received the new title of Mubāriz Khān and was confirmed in his Rājah Chabelah Rām,3 a personal adherent of old appointment. Farrukhsiyar's family and a brave soldier, whose welfare was dear to the heart of the Emperor, was sent at first to Agrah, his birthplace, but on the pretext that he was unable to cope with Curāman, Jāt, he was soon replaced by Samsāmu-d-daulah, Khān Daurān, also a native of Audh was given to Sarbuland Khān, the Emperor's uncle by marriage, and Allāhābād to Khān Jahān (son of the late Khān Jahān, Bahādur, Kokaltāsh, 'Alamgīrī). The latter had been recently removed from the Government of Bengal. His titles were now increased to A'azzu-d-daulah, Khān 'Ālam, Bahādur. Shahāmat Khān (Mubāriz Khān) had lately held Mālwah in addition to Gujarāt. Mālwah was now taken from him and given over to Rājah Jai Singh of Āmber. conciliate the Rajah, he was told that he need not come to Court, but might march straight from his own country to his new government. 'Azīmābād Patnah (Bihar) was confirmed, as before 'to Ḥusain 'Alī Khān, Amīru-l-umarā; his sister's son, Ghairat Khān, who had been left behind in charge, continuing to act as his deputy. Bengal was conferred on the infant prince, the Emperor's son, Farkhunda Bakht, entitled Jahangir Shah, with the former diwan, Murshid Quli Khan,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Mīr Muḥammad Takkī, Ḥusainī, Māzandarānī, Isfahānī, son of Sādāt <u>Kh</u>ān, wounded on the day of Farrukhsiyar's deposition, in Rabī' 1131 H., February 1719, and died a few days afterwards aged over eighty years— $T\bar{a}r\bar{i}kh$ -i-Muḥammadī.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Mḥd. <u>Kh</u>alīl, entitled first Zabardast <u>Kh</u>ān, then 'Alī Mardān <u>Kh</u>ān, Zīk, died a little before the 9th Jumādī I, 1125 H., 2nd June, 1713,  $T\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}\underline{kh}$ -i-Muḥammadī and Kāmwar <u>Kh</u>ān. For this family, see *M.-ul-u.*, 1, 295-300, II, 795, and III, 155.

<sup>&</sup>amp; Chabelī Rām in Mīrzā Muḥammad; sometimes Chabelā Rām in other works.

as his deputy. The latter's titles were increased to Ja'far Khān, Naṣīrī. In a few months' time, when the infant died of small pox, the ṣūbah was granted to Mīr Jumlah, with the same deputy. To Orissa, Murshid Qulī Khān (Ja'far Khān) was appointed ṣūbahdār in his own name.<sup>2</sup>

For the six provinces making up the Dakhin special arrangements The supreme control of the whole country was confided to Cin Qilic Khān (son of the late Ghāzīu-d-din Khān, Fīrūz Jang), who on this occasion was created Nizāmu-l-mulk, Bahādur, Fath Jang. was empowered to select the lands to be held in jagir for furnishing the pay of himself and his followers, and to suggest the rank (mansab) to be granted to the chief landholders. His headquarters were fixed at Aurangābād. In Burhānpur his deputy was to be Shukr-ullāh Khān, to make room for whom Dāūd Khān, Pannī, was removed as deputygovernor to Ahmadābād in Gujarāt; in the two Karnātak, Sa'ādat-ullāh Khān; in Barār, 'Iwaz Khān, who was married to the late Ghāzīu-d-dīn Khān's sister, and was, therefore, Nizāmu-l-mulk's uncle by marriage. Bīdar, Bījāpur, and Ḥaidarābād were to remain as before under Amīn Khān (son of Khān Zamān, Bahādur, Fath Jang, deceased), Manṣūr Khān and Yūsuf Khān respectively. Haidar Qulī Khān, Isfarāinī, a protégé of Mir Jumlah, was sent as diwan of the whole Dakhin, with authority over every department, except those of the Nazim, of the report writers, and of the deciding of suits.3

The Sayyid brothers are generally accused of grasping all power and office for themselves and friends to the exclusion of everybody else. It is curious to note, after going through the chief appointments, that this accusation should have so little foundation. Besides the two offices which were the price of their services, they received the government of two  $s\bar{u}bahs$  for themselves and one for an uncle. They seem to have

l Mīrzā Muḥammad gives بصيرى plainly enough, but generally it is written naṣīrī or nuṣairī. Baṣīrī means "the prudent," "the circumspect," naṣīrī, "the ally," "the helper," and nuṣairī "faithful to 'Alī as was Nuṣair," or "one ready to sacrifice his life out of devotion." Anyone of these meanings would be equally appropriate.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Mīrzā Muḥammad, 174.

³ Mīrzā Muḥammad, 177, Khāfī Khān, II, 740. Biographies of some of the above men will be found as follows. Dāūd Khān, Pannī, d. 1127 H., 1715-16, (Ma'āṣiru-l-umarā, II, 63). Sa'ādat-ullah Khān, a Nawāyat (see Wilks, I, 242), died 1145 H., 1732-3, (M-ul-u, II, 513). 'Iwaz Khān, d. 1143 H., 1730-1, (M-ul-u, II, 832). Amīn Khān, d. 1137 H., 1724-5, (M.-ul-u., I, 352), fourth son of Shaikh Nizām, Khān Zamān, d. 1108 H., 1696-7, (id. 1, 794), captor of Shambhā Jī, Mahrattah. Manṣūr Khān was a Rōz Bahānī.

obtained very little else, while the Emperor's friends and the Tūrānī chiefs obtained the lion's share. A crowd of new men were thus brought on the stage, and it is necessary for the sake of clearness that we should say something about the most prominent of them, their origin and antecedents.

## 7. I'TIMADU-DAULAH MUHAMMAD AMIN KHAN, BAHADUR, NUSRAT JANG.

Muhammad Amin Khān was a native of Samargand in the king-His grandfather, 'Alam Shaikh, a learned man and dom of Bukhārā. a descendant of the Shaikh Shahābu-d-dīn, Quraishī, Tarmanī, Şadīqī, of Sahrward, had two sons, Khwāja 'Abid and Mīr Bahāu-d-dīn. elder son came to India and was the father of Ghāzīu-d-din Khān, Firūz Jang; the second son, Mir Bahāu-d-din, Muḥammad Amīn's father, entered the employ of the ruler of Bukhārā, and was by him executed on suspicion of complicity with his rebellious son. happened about the year 1098 H. (1686-7), when Mir Muhammad Amin must have been about twenty-five years of age. He escaped to India and was favourably received by 'Alamgir, then in the Dakhin, by whom he was sent to serve with his cousin, Firūz Jang. In the fortysecond year, 1109-10 H., 1697-8, when 'Alamgir was anxious to find in the Tūrānis a counterpoise to Asad Khān, the Wazir, and his son, Zū-l-figār Khān, Muḥammad Amīn Khān was brought to Court and made sadr, or head of the charitable and religious endowments. In 1115-16 H., 1704-5, and again in 1116-17 H., his rank was raised in reward for military services, and in the very last year of 'Alamgir's reign (1118 H.), after defeating the Mahrattahs, he received the special addition of Cin Bahādur to his other titles. Although the Tūrānis had not shown any great zeal for his rival, A'zam Shāh, still Bahādur Shāh did not receive them into the same favour as before. Muḥammad Amīn Khān was sent to Murādābād as faujdār; but towards the end of the reign, he was brought back to headquarters, and took a leading part in the campaign against the Sikhs. When Jahāndār Shāh decided to march against Farrukhsiyar, Muhammad Amīn Khān was recalled from Sahrind. He was present in Jahandar Shah's ranks at Agrah, but as we have related, took no serious part in the fighting. This betraval was now rewarded by his appointment to be second Bakhshi of the empire. At this time he was about fifty-two years of age, and since the death of Firuz Jang in 1122 H., 1710-11, he had become the acknowledged leader of the Türānī soldiery, his cousin, Cīn Qilīc Khān (Nizāmu-lmulk), son of Fīrūz Jang, being about ten years his junior.1

8. ŞAMŞĀMU-D-DAULAH, KHĀN DAURĀN, BAHĀDUR, MANŞŪR JANG.

Khwāja 'Āṣim's ancestors, emigrating from a village in Badakhshān, took up their residence in Agrah. Some followed the profession of soldiering, others gained reputation as men of learning and holiness, living secluded from the world. They were of the Naqshbandī sect. His father's name was Khwāja Qāsim: and as his birth took place about 1083 H., 1672-3, he was now about forty-two (lunar) years of age. He began life as a trooper of Prince 'Azīmu-sh-shān's regiment, and when that prince, at the time of 'Alamgīr's death, left Bengal for Āgrah, Khwāja 'Āṣim remained with Farrukhsiyar in the former province. One author asserts that he had been a play-fellow of Farrukhsiyar's, but as he was at least eleven years older, this can hardly be correct. His intimacy with the prince was founded, however, on his joining him in wrestling, archery, riding, polo playing and other war-like exercises, of which Farrukhsiyar was passionately fond. He soon obtained such great influence with the young prince that the other courtiers complained to 'Azīmu-sh-shān. The Khwāja was accordingly sent for to head-quarters at Lāhōr. Soon after this, Bahādur Shāh died and Khwāja 'Āṣim (now become Ashraf Khān) upon the death of his master, 'Azīmu-sh-shān, fled to Āgrah. Here Khwāja Ja'far, his elder brother, tried to make him renounce the world and thus save his soul. For a time he stopped at home and occupied himself with Shīrāzī pigeon-fancying and archery. When Farrukhsiyar became next heir to the throne, Khwāja 'Āṣim "felt like a falcon newly moulted." He began to collect some men, but his doings were reported to the governor. Being warned by a disciple of a resolve to seize him, he fled at midnight in the disguise of a faqīr. On reaching Paṭnah, he was introduced by the two Sayyids to the prince, his former intimacy with whom he is said to have concealed. From this point the part he took has already appeared in our history.

Khān Daurān was the perfect type of the Indian courtier, and from this time until his death in 1151 H. 1738, he retained his position at Court, whoever was in power. He is described as a man of smooth plausible speech, with no learning and little knowledge of Persian, prefixing to every sentence the catch word Mērā ṣāḥib! (my good sir). To conceal his limited acquaintance with Persian, he used to begin by speaking in elegant Urdū, so that he might charm his hearers at the outset and prevent their noticing his defective scholarship. He used to say that for a man born in India to attempt to speak Persian was to make himself ridiculous by his own act. But he could quote occasional-

<sup>1</sup> M.ul-umarā, I. 817, Aḥwālu-l-khawāqīn, 49b, Tārīkh-i-Muḥammadī (year 1151 H.)

ly with good effect Persian couplets or proverbs. An elder brother had been formerly in the service of 'Azīmu-sh-shān and was killed in the campaign in Bengal against Raḥīm Khān, Afghān. Much of Khān Dauran's prestige may have been derived from his commanding presence. A contemporary tells us that when he walked up the audience hall with a group of followers, his head would be seen towering far above the others. From all accounts he and his brother, Muzaffar Khān, were boasters of a most extravagant order, while their courage was more than doubtful. At any rate, they rarely put it to the test. Khān Daurān might, indeed, have qualified as a member of the Peace Society, for whenever the subject was broached, he would ask, "What is to be gained by going to war?" He was one of those men, never absent from Eastern courts, who do absolutely nothing, either in war or in peace, as a return for the rank and wealth which have been showered upon His hand was in every intrigue, and never without profit to Throughout his career, he was the favourer of the Hindustānī party in the State, the person through whom Jat or Rajput chiefs put forward any claim they might wish to advance. Especially was this the case with Rājah Jai Singh, for whom as we shall see, Khān Daurān obtained many favours.1

# 9. GHĀZĪU-D-DĪN KHĀN, GHĀLIB JANG, (AḤMAD BĒG).

When Farrukhsiyar first reached 'Azīmābād Paṭnah, Sharī'atullāh Khān (Mīr Jumlah) and Khwāja 'Aṣim (Khān Daurān) not being present, Aḥmad Bēg became for a time his most active assistant and principal confidant. He was one of the foster brothers of Jahāndār Shāh,² but having quarrelled with that prince on account of the preference shown for 'Alī Murād, Kokaltāsh Khān, he sought a refuge in Bengal. When Farrukhsiyar's more particular favourites returned, they supplanted Aḥmad Bēg in the prince's good graces, and from that time he seems to have fallen a good deal into the back ground. Aḥmad Bēg, a man of Tūrānī race,³ was born about 1076 H. 1665-6. From the scantiness of his beard, he bore the nickname of Kosah, or Goatbeard.⁴ His further part in history is confined to two occasions, the day of

<sup>1</sup> Ma'asiru-l-umara, I, 819, Yahya Khan, 119b., Ashob, 73.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Yaḥyā <u>Kh</u>ān, 119a, says he was the  $naw\bar{a}sah$  (daughter's son) of Qāīm Bēg, <u>Sh</u>āhjahānī.

<sup>3</sup> The Aḥwālu-l-khawāqīn, 61a, gives him the epithet of Ashtarlab (?).

<sup>4</sup> The epithet is borne out by a portrait that I saw lately at Mr. Quaritch's (one of the drawings mentioned on the cover of his catalogue No. 155, December 1895). Chālib Jang is shown seated, and is dressed in a pale mauve coat of thin muslin. His beard consists of four or five short, straight hairs.

Farrukhsiyar's deposition, when he fought in the streets on his master's behalf, and again at the time when he took the side of Qutbu-l-mulk, after the murder of Ḥusain 'Alī Khān. When Muḥammad Shāh pardoned him, it was proposed to take away his title of Ghālib Jang, as it had been granted to a brother of Lutf-ullāh Khān, Ṣādiq. Ghazīu-d-dīn Khān made loud objection, and claimed that, as both he and the new "Conqueror in War" were present, they should fight it out in single combat, the victor becoming in both senses "Ghālib-i-jang." The emperor smiled and left him in undisturbed possession. He died on the 12th Ṣafar, 1139 H., (8th October, 1726), at the age of sixty-three (lunar) years.

#### 10. Mir Jumlah.

The name of this man, a native of Samarqand in Tūrān, was 'Ubaid-ullāh, son of Mir Muḥammad Wafā, and he was born about the year 1081 H., 1670-1. Early in life he abandoned his native country and repaired to Hindustan, where he arrived in the reign of 'Alamgir. He obtained in time the post of Qāzī at Jahāngīrnagar Dhākah in sūbah Bengal, and finally the same office at 'Azīmābād Paṭnah in sūbah Bihar. He seems to have wormed himself into the confidence of Prince 'Azimu-sh-shān, then Governor of Bengal and Bihar, and to have obtained complete control over the mind of his second son, Farrukhsiyar. He was with Prince 'Azīmu-sh-shān at Lāhōr, and as we have already stated, was making his way eastwards to Farrukhsiyar when he met and joined that prince at Agrah. He had secured himself a very favourable reception by his successful negociations with the Tūrānī leaders in Jahandar Shah's army. From this time his name will recur frequently in our narrative. His titles were first Shari'at-ullāh Khān, then 'Ibād-ullāh Khān, Bahādur, Muzaffar Jang, and finally Muta'midu--l-mulk, Mu'azzam Khān, Khān Khānān, Bahādur, Muzaffar Jang, Mīr Jumlah, Tarkhānī, Sultānī. He is described by one writer as a man who, in spite of his great learning, was blind to the essential meaning of things.3

# 11. Nizāmu-l-mulk.

Perhaps the most important person in the group of men that rose into the very first rank upon Farrukhsiyar's accession, was Nizāmu-l-mulk, now a man of nearly forty-three (lunar) years of age, who

<sup>1</sup> Ma'āsiru-l-umarā II, 879, Tārīkh-i-Mhdī., year 1139 H.

The Ma'āṣiru-l-umarā has "'Abd-ullāh " and "'Ibād-ullāh." The commonest form is عبيدالله which may be either 'Abīd-ullāh or 'Ubaid-ullāh.

<sup>3</sup> *Ma'āṣiru-l-umarā*, III, 711, *T-i-Mḥdī*., year 1144 H., *Aḥwālu-l-<u>kh</u>awāqīn*, 61a. J. 1. 21

was already a distinguished soldier and provincial governor, even in 'Ālamgīr's reign. Hitherto, however, he had been overshadowed by his father, Ghāzīu-d-dīn Khān, Fīrūz Jang, who had died only two years before this time, and by his cousin, a much older man, Muḥammad Amīn Khān, Cīn, Bahādur. But on Nizāmu-l-mulk's appointment in 1125 H. (1713) to the six sūbahs of the Dakhin, he rose to a position of preeminence, which he never for one moment lost till his death in 1161 H. (1748), thirty-five years afterwards.

As stated a few pages back, when speaking of Muhammad Amin Khān, the family of Nizāmu-l-mulk came from Samargand. His great grand-father was 'Ālam Shaikh, son of Allāhdād, son of 'Abdu-rraḥmān, Shaikh 'Azīzān.' They are said to have come originally from Khwāja 'Ābid, son of 'Ālam Shaikh, moved to Bukhārā, where he was first of all  $Q\bar{a}z\bar{i}$ , then Shaikhu-l-islām. A year or two before 'Alamgir ascended the throne (1066-7 H., 1655-6), he passed through India on his way to Mecca. He returned at the time when 'Alamgir was about to start from the Dakhin to seize his father's throne. 'Alamgir accepted his services and gave him a high command. He filled various offices, such as that of Sadārat-i-kull, or superintendent of endowments, governor of Ajmer, then of Multan. twenty-fourth year (1091-2 H., 1680-1) he fell into disgrace, but was soon pardoned and again given the Sadārat-i-kull. A year afterwards he was sent to the Dakhin, and then in the twenty-ninth year (1096-7 H., 1684-5), he became governor of Zafarābād Bīdar. He continued to serve with distinction in the Dakhin, until on the 24th Rabi' I. 1098 H. (30th January, 1687), at the siege of Gulkandah, he was shot in the arm and died of the wound. In the twenty-third year (1690-1) he had received the title of Qilic Khán. He had five sons, the two youngest of whom died comparatively early in life without rising very high. The second and third sons, Mu'izzu-d-daulah, Hāmid Khān, and Naṣirud-daulah, 'Abdu-r-raḥīm Khān, were men of some fame and distinction.

1 The table (furnished by the present Nizām) in J. D. B. Gribble's "History of the Deccan," I, 380, gives the same steps in the genealogy thus:—

Nizāmu-l-mulk, Āṣaf Jāh,

Fīrūz Jang

Mīr 'Ābid (Qilīc Khān),

Khwāja Mīr Ismā'īl

Khwāja 'Azīzān (Aluna)

Mḥd 'Ālam Shaikh, Ṣadīqī 'Ulvī,

and so on, back to Muḥammad, son of Abū Bakr, in the 33rd generation.

But the greatest of all was the eldest son, Ghāzīu-d-dīn Khān, Fīrūz Jang, and to him we now turn.

Mīr Shahābu-d-dīn was born at Samarqand about the year 1060 H. (1649-50); and followed his father to India in the twelfth year of 'Alamgir (1079-80 H., 1668-9), when he was in his nineteenth or twentieth year. He received the rank of 300 Zāt, 70 horse. special favour with 'Alamgir began ten years later when, at the peril of his life, he brought speedy information from a general who had been sent in pursuit of the Rānā into the hills of Udaipūr, and of whose safety no tidings could be obtained. For this service he obtained the title of Khān and from that time rose rapidly, especially after he had proved his loyalty by rejecting all advances from the emperor's rebel son, Prince Akbar. He accompanied the emperor into the Dakhin and took part in all the campaigns there for the succeeding five and twenty years. He conquered Ibrāhīmgarh-Ekar (also called Fīrūzgarh); was conspicuous in the taking of Haidarābād; Adonī (Imtiyāz-garh) also fell before him. He was sent against Cambhājī, son of Çivājī, in 1099-1100 H. (1687-8), and served against Deogarh (Islāmgarh), which he captured. In the forty-eighth year, 1115-16 H., 1703-4, he pursued the Mahrattahs into Malwah. At the time of 'Alamgir's death in 1118 H., 1707, he was at Elicpur, in charge of the subah of Barar. As we have already recounted (under Bahadur Shāh's reign), he took no part in the war of succession between A'zam Shāh and Bahādur Shāh. The Tūrānis were not in favour with the victor, Bahādur Shāh, and thus Fīrūz Jang was moved out of the Dakhin, where he was dangerous, to the government of Ahmadābād in Gujarāt. There he died on the 17th Shawwāl 1122 H. (8th December, 1710) at the age of sixty-two (lunar) years. He held the rank of 7,000 zāt. Following the usual Mughal system, his estate was confiscated on his death. It consisted of  $l^{\frac{1}{2}}$  lakes of rupees in bills on bankers, 133,000 gold muhrs, 25,000 Hūn (gold) and nīm-pāolī (gold), 17,000 gold Pāolī, 400 adhelī (half) and 8,000 whole silver Pāolī, 140 horses, 300 camels, 400 oxen and 38 elephants.

Ghāzīu-d-dīn Khān is described as the most exceptionally gifted among the Tūrānī nobles, good-natured, dignified, fortunate in war and an excellent administrator. His first wife was the daughter of Sa'd-ul-lāh Khān,¹ Wazīr of Shāhjahān; after her death he married in succession two of her nieces, daughters of her brother, Hifz-ullāh Khān (Miyān Khān), but by these two wives he had no children. For the last twenty years of his life he was totally blind, his sight having been

<sup>1</sup> S. K. died 1066 H., 1665-6, see M-ul-u, II, 441 and T-i-Mhdī, year 1066 H.

destroyed by an epidemic which raged in the army under his command. In spite of this privation, his active career continued as before; such a case having been until then unknown in India, of a blind man continuing to command an army in the field or govern a province.

Mir Qamaru-d-din, son of Ghāziu-d-din Khān by the daughter of Shāhjahān's Wazīr, Sa'd-ullāh Khān, was born on the 14th Rabī' II. 1082 H., (11th August, 1671). In 1095 H. (1682-3) when in his thirteenth year, he received as his first appointment in the service of the state, the rank of  $400 z\bar{a}t$ , 100 horse. In the following year the title of Khān was added to his name. In 1101 or 1102 H., (1690-1), he received the title of Cin Qilic Khān, and at 'Alamgir's death in 1118 H., 1707, he was governor of Bijāpur. His father and he took no part in the contest for the throne between the sons of 'Alamgir: and when Bahadur Shah had succeeded in defeating his rival, he removed the Tūrānīs from the Dakhin, possibly on the advice of Zū-l-fiqār Khān, who looked on them as his personal enemies. Ghāzīu-d-dīn Khān, Fīrūz Jang, was sent to Aḥmadābād in Gujarāt, Muḥammad Amīn Khān, Cin, went to Murādābād as faujdār and Cin Qilic Khān was appointed Sūbahdār of Audh and faujdār of Gōrakhpur (15th Ramazān, 1119 H., 9th December, 1707). At the same time the title of the last named was changed to that of Khān Daurān, Bahādur, and he was raised to 6000 zāt, 6000 horse. A few weeks afterwards (5th Zū-l-Qa'dah, 27th January, 1708), he resigned all his titles and appointments; but at the desire of Mun'im Khān, the Wazīr, he withdrew his resignation and was promoted to 7,000 zāt, 7,000 horse. When his father died and the deceased's property was confiscated, Cin Qilīc Khān (Khān Daurān as he then was) sent in his resignation afresh, 18th Zū-l-Ḥijjah 1122 H., 6th February, 1711; this time it was accepted, and 4,000 rupees a year were granted for his support. at the end of Bahādur Shāh's reign, he returned to the active list with the titles of Ghāzīu-d-dīn Khān, Bahādur, Fīrūz Jang. On Bahādur Shāh's death, he attempted to espouse the cause of 'Azīmu-sh-shān,

In many works there is a curious mistake as to Nizāmu-l-mulk's age. He is said to have died in 1161 H., (1748), at the age of one hundred and four years. Orme, "Military Transactions," Madras reprint, I, 122, is the first to make this statement. Orme was in Madras at the time of the Nizām's death (1748), and ought to have known the truth; but then he had no knowledge of Persian and no access to written authorities. Grant Duff, "History of the Mahrattahs," Bombay reprint, 265, repeats the statement, probably copying from Orme. Grant Duff was acquainted with both the Ma'āṣiru-l-umarā, and the Khizānah-i-'āmirah, a reference to either of which would have shown him that Nizāmu-l-mulk's birth year was 1082 H.; and therefore, in 1161 H., when he died, he could have been no more than 79 lunar or 77 solar years of age. This is the age given by Elphinstone, "History," 64 1.

who long before had promised him high office, and he had made one march from Dihlī at the head of 3,000 or 4,000 men, when he heard of the prince's death. Thereupon he discharged his men and retired into private life. 'Abdu-ṣ-ṣamad Khān was the brother-in-law of his cousin, Muḥammad Amīn Khān, and this man's services to Zū-l-fiqār Khān had been so great, that on his account Cīn Qilīc Khān's hostile attitude was overlooked. Towards the end of Jahāndār Shāh's short reign, he was appointed to the defence of Āgrah. There he and his cousin were brought over to Farrukhsiyar's interest, as already related, through Sharī'at-ullāh Khān (Mīr Jumlah), and as a reward for his neutrality he was now made governor of the whole Dakhin, with the new titles first of Khān Khānān, and then of Nizāmu-l-mulk, Bahādur, Fath Jang.¹

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<sup>1</sup> Fath Jang is the title by which he is most commonly referred to by Khāfī Khān. Mīrzā Muḥammad, 399, is the authority for Khān Khānān. For the rest of the above paragraphs, see Ma'āṣiru-l-umarā, III, 120 (Qilīc Khān), II, 872, (Fīrūz Jang), III, 837 and 875-883 (Nizāmu-l-mulk), also Tārīkh-i-Khurshīd-Jāhī, p. 372 (lithographed, Ḥaidarābād, 1287 H.), Maāṣir-i-ʿĀlamgīrī, 242, 249, 259, 340, and Kāmwar Khān.

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# An unrecorded Governor of Fort William in Bengal.—By C. R. Wilson, M. A.

[Read April, 1898.]

It is well known that the commonly received lists of the early Governors of Bengal are very imperfect. Quite recently, in 1888, Mr. F. C. Danvers, Registrar and Superintendent of the India Office Records, drew up a statement and memorandum tracing the Bengal Chiefs, Agents, and Governors, from the earliest dates. Yet even he has failed to notice the Governor of whose history this paper is intended to be a brief record. He was, it is true, Governor for little more than a single day, but his life more than covers the interval between Charnock and Clive, and the man himself is an interesting personality in the factory period.

Edward Stephenson<sup>1</sup> was born in Cumberland in the year 1691, his baptism being recorded in the parish register of Crosthwaite under the date of the 8th October of that year. His father was Edward Stephenson of Keswick. Through his mother Rebecca, he was connected with the Winders of Lorton and of the City of London. pedigree of the Winders of Lorton has been investigated with great care by Mr. F. A. Winder of Southsea, Portsmouth,2 to whom I am indebted for much of the information which follows. Here it will be sufficient to say that John Winder of Lorton, who died in May, 1696, left behind a numerous family among whom were his eldest son and heir John Winder, barrister-at-law of Gray's Inn; Samuel Winder, a merchant at Mark Lane, London; Jonathan Winder, his third son, who entered the New East India Company's service, and was from 1705 to 1707 one of the two Chairmen of the United Council in Bengal; and Rebecca who married, as has been said, Edward Stephenson of Keswick, by whom she had two sons, Edward and John, and a daughter, Debora.

<sup>1</sup> He signs "Edwd. Stephenson," and so the India Office Records always spell the name. The parish register has "Steavenson."

See his paper on the subject in Vol. XIV. of the Transactions of the Cumberland and Westmorland Antiquarian and Archæological Society.

On the 3rd November, 1708, the Court of Directors of the East India Company read a petition from Edward Stephenson, then seventeen years old "praying to be entertained a writer in the Bay or elsewhere," and ordered the Committee of Accounts to examine the petitioner's qualifications. 1 On the 24th November Edward Stephenson was elected a writer in the Company's service.2 On the 17th December following, Mr. Samuel and Mr. Jonathan Winder were accepted as securities for Edward Stephenson in £500.3 Edward Stephenson arrived in Bengal on the 2nd February, 1710.4 In the seventy-fifth paragraph of a letter from Bengal to the Court of Directors dated the 10th December, 1712, he was specially commended.<sup>5</sup> On this account he was advanced one year in service and accordingly became a Factor on the 2nd February, 1714.6 In a list of the Company's servants drawn up in November, 1711, he appears as Sub-Accountant.

On the 5th January, 1714, he was elected third in the embassy to Delhi.7 On the 26th February he was given two hundred and fifty rupees to provide himself with clothes and necessaries.8 In April the boats which carried the present for Farrukhsiyar were sent up the river to Patna, and Stephenson must have left Calcutta at the same time or soon after.9 When the Surman Diary opens in August, 1714, we find him with John Surman in Patua preparing to start for the Mogul Court. On the 6th April, 1715, the embassy actually began its journey. On the 7th July it made its entry into Delhi.10 The next two years were spent in long, tedious, but successful negotiations. After many disappointments Farrukhsiyar vizier, Sayyid 'Abdu-llāh Khān, were prevailed upon to issue a number of imperial rescripts and orders increasing and securing the commercial privileges of the English in every part of India. In his

<sup>1</sup> See Court Book XLIII., p. 231.

<sup>2</sup> See Court Book XLIII., p. 275.

<sup>8</sup> See Court Book XLIII., p. 344.

<sup>4</sup> See the lists of the Company's servants which come at the end of the volumes of Consultations in the India Office Records.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> This letter is lost, but an abstract of it will be found in the Correspondence Papers, Vol. I., 1713 to 1715.

<sup>6</sup> See Bengal General, dated 13th January, 1713 (i.e., 1714). para. 88.

<sup>7</sup> See Bengal Public Consultations of that date. On further discussion, Khojah Sarhad being appointed second, John Pratt became third, and Stephenson, Secretary. Finally Pratt withdrew and on the 4th March Stephenson was again appointed third.

<sup>8</sup> See Bengal Public Consultations of that date.

<sup>10</sup> See the Surman Diary under the dates given.

old age Stephenson was consulted by Orme about the history of this embassy in which he played no small part and of which he was in 1765 the sole survivor. On the 18th July, 1717, the embassy left Delhi and returned to Calcutta on the 22nd November.<sup>1</sup>

From the embassy Stephenson went to Balasor to be Chief of the local factory; but in July, August, 1718, he was transferred to the Council at Patna of which he became Chief on the 25th June, 1719.<sup>2</sup> In September, 1720, he was confirmed in this appointment, and given a gratuity of £300 for his services in connection with the embassy.<sup>2</sup>

After eight years of uneventful service, first as Chief at Patna, and afterwards as Chief at Cassimbazar, he was suddenly called upon to fill the highest post of all. "On Friday, the 23rd August, 1718," says the Consultations Book, "the Hon. Henry Frankland, Esq., late President, having, after a sickness of about twelve days, departed this life at one o'clock this morning, and the Worshipful Edward Stephenson, Esq., being next in succession, who is now Chief at Cassimbazar, it is unanimously agreed that we despatch a pair of qāsids to advise him that thereby the government of this place devolves on him." The Consultations Book continues the story on Tuesday the 17th September. "This morning at nine o'clock the Hon. Edward Stephenson, Esq., arrived here from Cassimbazar and took his place at this board as President and Governor of Fort William in Bengal to which he succeeds by the death of our late President, the Hon. Henry Frankland, Esq., and accordingly the commission and keys of the fort were now delivered him." His rule was short. On the evening of Wednesday the 18th John Deane who had already held supreme authority, from 1723 to 1726, returned from England and resumed his former position. "At eight o'clock in the night arrived here John Deane, Esq., who produced the Honorable Company's commission for appointing him President and Governor of all their affairs in Bengal; which commission was read in the Consultation Room, Fort William, in the presence of all the Company's servants, &c., and accordingly the keys of the fort were delivered to him by Edward Stephenson, Esq." 4

<sup>1</sup> See the Surman Diary and the Bengal Public Consultations of the dates given.

See Bengal Public Consultations as before.

Mr. Danvers in his carefully compiled list of Bengal Governors has omitted Edward Stephenson and the second governorship of John Deane. According to him Henry Frankland assumed office on the 30th January, 1726, and returned to Europe on the 25th February, 1732. Whereas, as I have said, Henry Frankland died on the 23rd August, 1728, and was succeeded by Edward Stephenson, who after actually holding office for a day and a half was superseded by John Deane on the night of the 18th

Stephenson accordingly returned to Cassimbazar where he remained another year. At the end of 1729 he resigned the chiefship of that place, and came down to Calcutta, whence he sailed for England on the Eyles at the beginning of 1730.1

It was probably after his return home that "Governor" Stephenson married the lady whose death on the 24th February, 1744, is recorded in the Gentleman's Magazine. In 1764 Orme, who was collecting materials for the second volume of his history wrote as follows to Stephenson<sup>8</sup>:—

"CONCERNING THE EMBASSY TO FURRUCKSEER.

To Mr. Stevenson.

SIR,

It is not impossible that you may have seen my work of the military transactions in India, and if your opinion of it has induced you to wish for the continuance of it, my present requests to you will carry their excuse with them; otherwise this intrusion will scarce admit of an apology.

In order to explain the late revolutions in Bengal, it appears to me absolutely necessary to explain the embassy to Furruckshir on which you went with Mr. Surman. These papers are in the India house where I am suffered to peruse them, but from whence I am not permitted to take them. As I am very infirm it is very seldom that I can go there, and when there, my attention is distracted by the variety of clerks and business, which surround me. If you have these papers in your possession, I shall be very much obliged to you for the loan of them for a few days. I will take great care of them, and return them punctually at the limited time. Should you be induced to comply with this request I beg the favour you will omit no scrap however insignificant in appearance, for it has often happened that a few words lead to very material knowledge.

I have always looked upon the Phirmaunds, which you obtained from Furuckshir, as the Magna Charter of the Company until of late years. It is true that the great Phirmaund, as published by Mr. Frazer, seems to imply a general permission of trading to all places in all articles. But I much doubt whether the Mogul ever intended that we should extend our sales beyond what was importation from foreign parts, or our purchases beyond what was intended for exportation. At least I am sure that all the while I was in Bengal, no Englishman dared to trade in salt, beetle or tobacco, and if they carried any others of the productions of the country from one port to another of the province of Bengal, they were permitted only because the profits were known to be very small and not worth the attention of the

September. It was John Deane who, having thus become a second time Governor returned to Europe on the 25th February, 1732.

<sup>1</sup> See Bengal Public Consultations.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Gentleman's Magazine for 1744, p. 108.

<sup>8</sup> ORME COLLECTIONS XV. Letter from Mr. Orme to Mr. Stevenson, pp. 4131-4133.

natives to make a quarrel about. I should be glad, therefore, to know from you, Sir, who are the only man alive that can tell me, whether these restrictions were not intended, although they may not be expressed in the Phirmaund.

It was a report whilst I was in Bengal that you had obtained from the Mogul an addition of 84 villages to the ground which contained all the Company's territory ten years ago; that is from Perrings to Surman's garden: but that the Nabob Jaffeir Khan set his face against this accession of territory, and would not suffer the company to take possession of it. was likewise a common talk, that Mr. Surman offended Jaffeir Khan on his return from Delhi, by asserting that the title of his Munsub being higher than the Nabob's, the Nabob ought in some ceremonies, which were to pass between them, to give him the precedence. I was young when in Bengal and never thinking of the work I am now engaged in, took these stories as they were told at table talk, and having forgot one half of the particulars, have little confidence in, nor indeed a clear idea of the rest. But by the Phirmaund published by Mr. Frazer it appears that the Mogul only granted 40 vingas, that is about 30 acres of ground to any settlements which the Company might make in Bengal or Orissa. So that the 84 villages must have been, if granted at all, in a separate Phirmaund.

Again, Sir, I should be glad to know what particular and extraordinary oppressions from the Government the Company suffered, to induce them to be at the expense of your embassy.

It was in consequence of great oppressions that in the year 1685, the old Company sent out an armanent and ordered Job Chanock to fight. The papers of old date which came from abroad, are in such extreme confusion at the India House, that there is no possibility of divining where Job Chanock's letter to the Company, informing them of his expedition, lies; so that I despair of ever seeing it. Perhaps, Sir, you by being in India, not many years after that event, may be able to give some account of it. Where he marched from and to; whom he fought; and the success; which by a letter, wrote by the Directors after the expedition, seems to have been no wise satisfactory to them.

I am far from expecting that you should be at the trouble of giving me in writing all the details concerning the informations I want; but an hour's conversation with you will, I hope, be deemed no unreasonable request, although I am a perfect stranger to you. If, therefore, you will permit me to wait on you the first time you come to town, I shall be much obliged for notice the day before, when I can have the pleasure of seeing you at your house in Queen Square. All I can say, Sir, is, that as you are the only person living who can give me these informations, my obligation will be equal to the difficulty of obtaining them elsewhere, very great indeed.

I am, Sir, with much respect,

Your very obedient humble Servant,

Harley Street, Cavendish Square, August 4th, 1764. R. ORME,"

From this it would appear that Edward Stephenson at this time resided chiefly in the country, perhaps at Borfield Lodge, Essex, and only occasionally came to town where he had a house in Queen's Square. Orme has preserved the following "memorandums of a conversation!:"

"Memorandums of a conversation with Edward Stephenson, Esq., who went on the Embassy to Furruckseer; taken on the same day I visited him January 17th, 1765.

He says that all the Lands in a province in Indostan excepting such as are governed by Rajahs, consist either of Colsa lands or Jagueers.

Jagueers are lands given to the Nabobs, Phousdars, or other Officers of the State, by the Crown, to be held only during their administration or continuance in favour, of which lands the temporary Lord receives the revenues or advantages, on condition that he keeps up the number of horse at which his Munsub or title of nobility is rated, and likewise the number of foot which are always in one settled proportion attached to the number of horse, this Mr. Stephenson believes to be double. So that a Munsub of 4,000 horse is to maintain besides those 4,000 horse, 8,000 foot, and he receives the rents of his Jagueer without deductions or taxes due to the Crown.

The Colsa lands are such as being neither governed by Rajahs, nor portioned into Jagueers remain to the Moorish Government to be administered by their own officers. All the Colsa lands are under the administration of the Duan, who farms them out to Renters for 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, etc. years, and the rents forthcoming from them are brought by the Duan into his account with the Emperor.

The territories governed by Rajahs are for the most part the same, which the ancestors of these Rajahs ruled at the time of conquest. It sometimes likewise has happened that Rajahs, who for the convenience of the Government, have been removed out of their hereditary lands, have been placed in other vacant territories.

These Rajahs govern according to the ancient institutions of their forefathers over the Indians their subjects; but over Mahomedans established in their territory they have not except by particular permission any authority of life or corporal punishment, for a Mahomedan always calls upon the Koran and the Cadi who is the interpreter of the Koran for this [his] Judge.

The Rajahs pay the stipulated tribute to the Duan.

The Duan therefore must be an officer of very great power, equal almost to the Nabob, His functions are:

1st. Supreme authority over the Colsah lands in all cases where the land is concerned.

<sup>1</sup> ORME COLLECTIONS O. V. 12, pp. 107-109.

- 2nd. Receiver general of all the Customs established in the Mogul's name. In the Jagueer lands the Nabob or Jaggueer Lord collects the customs, but cannot impose them in detriment to the interests of the Crown, against the will of the Duan. In the Rajahs' lands the Rajahs have likewise the same rights as the Nabobs in the Jaggueer lands; but with the same limitations.
- 3rd. He is Agent for the Crown or rather Executor to the estates of all the feudatories who die.

The dependance which the Duan has on the Nabob consists in being obliged to apply to him for forces, for keeping in order the Rajahs or the Colsah inhabitants who do not regularly and punctually pay their debts to the Crown."

Whether Orme ever saw Stephenson again, whether they ever talked upon any other points, I cannot say, but perhaps Stephenson was too infirm to enter into lengthy discussions. Three years later, on the 7th September, 1768, "Governor" Stephenson died at his house in Queen's Square; and was buried in the family vault at Keswick in Cumberland. He left no will and the administration of his property was granted on the 23rd September "to John Stephenson, Esq., the natural and lawful brother and next of kin of the said deceased." John Stephenson died in 1771, aged 72, at Mount Pleasant. He left a very lengthy will, of which the most important provisions are the following.

I, John Stephenson, late of East St., Red Lion Square, London, but now of Tottenham High Cross, Esquire, make my will. Body to be burried in my family vault at Keswick, Cumberland, where my late brother Edward Stephenson is interred. I give and bequeath, unto Rev. Mr. Christian of Keswick, clerk, £50; to Henry Littledale gent, £500; to William Battie, doctor of Physic, £20; my steward Joseph Clarke of Bodybury, Kent, Hannah Wilson of Keswick, my Steward William Graham of Sikeside, Cumberland, Hannah Basford, John Fletcher, (servant of my son Edward Stephenson) each £20 for mourning. To Anthony Askew, of Queen's Square, London, doctor of physic, and my cousin Rowland Stephenson, of Lombard St., London, Banker, my two Executors, £500 each. To James Farrer, of Bread St. Hill, gent, and Thomas Lewis of Theobald's Row, London, carpenter, my Trustees, £500, each.

William Battie and Anthony Askew to have care of my son. To James Farrer and Thomas Lewis, heirs and assigns, all my freehold and copyhold;

<sup>1</sup> See Gentleman's Magazine for 1768, Vol. 38, pp. 447, 494.

<sup>2</sup> See the Will of John Stephenson given below.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> P. C. C., A. A. 1768.

<sup>4</sup> Gentleman's Magazine for 1771, p. 239.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Proved 1771. P. C. C. Trevor, No. 230.

manors, messuages, lands, etc., for uses herein after expressed:—viz: £1000 yearly for use and support of Edward Stephenson, my son, during life and heirs ..... if my son die without issue ... then to Anthony Askew,

For these details I am indebted to Mr. F. A. Winder, who also tells me that Edward Stephenson built "Governor House," Keswick, and that a descendant of the family is still living in Paris at a place called "Governor's House." The following inscription is cut in stone on the chancel floor of Crosthwaite Parish Church.

"Edward Stephenson, Esquire,

"late Governor

"of Bengal.

"Obt. Sep. 7, 1768.

"Ætat. 77."



The discovery of a work by Āryadēva in Sanskrit.—By Mahāmahōpādhyāya Haraprasād Shāstrī, Professor of Sanskrit, Presidency College.

#### [Read January, 1898.]

When in Nepal I paid a visit to His Excellency Dēva Shamshēr Jang Rāṇā Bahādur, Commander-in-Chief of the Nepal Army. At the interview were present a Hindu Pandit and a Buddhist Bada. There was a collection of Manuscripts and I was asked by His Excellency if I knew anything of these Manuscripts. There were some volumes of the Catasāhasrikā-prajñā-pāramitā, a MS. of the Astasāhasrikā-prajñā-pāramitā written in the reign of Rāmapāla who is said to have been a king of Eastern Bengal and who reigned about the year 1000 A.D.; a MS. of a work on the influence of the heavenly bodies on human diseases. But there was a bundle of palm-leaves which I could not identify at first sight. It had no beginning and apparently no end. I solicited the permission of His Excellency to give me an opportunity of examining the MS., once more. It was therefore deposited with the Head Master of the Durbar School, Babū Phanibhūsana Adhikāri. I called on him a few days later, examined the MS. very carefully and took a copy of it in Bengali. It was written in old Nevari and was in many places altogether obliterated. The first leaf was missing. There were eight leaves from 2 to 9 but the obverse side of the 7th was altogether illegible. There were altogether 125 verses from 6 to 131. Of the 6th verse only the last two caranas remain. Of the 3rd carana the first letter was missing. That letter I had no difficulty in guessing. It was Ma because the second leaf begins with the letters hayane. After the 131st verse the following statement occurs.

## क्रतिरियं चार्यदेवपादानामिति ॥ खपरार्यहेतुना खात्र (?) हरितह्नेति सुभं मये लिखितम्। यथात्मनः प्रियाः प्राचाः सर्व्वेषां प्राचिनां तथा।

The name of the work is not given but it is stated in the colophon that it was the work of Āryadēva a name familiar to every reader of Buddhist Literature, and especially of the Siyuki. He was a disciple

of Nāgārjuna and one of those great men who helped the spread of the Mahāyāna doctrines of Buddhism. Beal says, "he had a great contempt for external forms of worship. 'A Spirit' he said, is 'Spiritnul.' We are not surprised to find therefore, that his teaching was of a mystical character." I find, the same thing exemplified before me. Thus he speaks of the bathing in the Ganges in my Manuscript:—

दृत्यं अश्विसम्भूतः पिग्छो ह्यश्विपूरितः।

कथं सन् तादृग्नः कायो गङ्गास्तानेन श्रध्यति ॥ ६०॥

न ह्यश्विघटस्तोयः चालितोऽपि प्रनः प्रनः।

तद्दश्विसम्पूर्णः पिग्छोऽपि न विश्वध्यति ॥ ६१॥

प्रतरद्वपि गङ्गायां नैव श्वा श्रद्धिमहित।

तस्तात् धमीधियां पंसां तीर्थसानं तु निष्पालम् ॥ ६२॥

धमी यदि भवेत् सानात् कवर्त्तानां कतार्थता।

नक्तंदिवं प्रविद्यानां मत्यादीनान्तु का कथा ॥ ६३॥

पापच्चयोऽपि स्नानेन नैव स्यादिति निस्तयः।

यतो रागादिनुद्धिस्तु दृश्यते तीर्थसेविनाम्॥ ६॥॥

Thus this lump (of flesh, meaning the human body) is produced by and is full of impure substances. How can it be purified by bathing in the Ganges? An impure waterpot though washed again and again by water, cannot be pure; so the lump full of impurities can never be pure. A dog swimming in the Ganges is not considered pure, therefore the bathing in holy places is absolutely useless. If bathing can confer merit the fishermen are very meritorious, not to speak of the fishes and others who are immersed in water, day and night. It is certain that from bathing sin even is not dissipated because people who are in the habit of making pilgrimages are full of love, hatred, &c.

Thus in the course of five short verses, Aryadeva denounces the uselessness not only of bathing in the Ganges but of all bathings and pilgrimages. They are not only incapable of conferring merit but are also incapable of dissipating sin.

The ninth verse of the MS. corresponds to the first verse of the Dhammapada in Pali but the Pali verse has six caranas while my verse has four only. The last letter of the second carana is manōjavāḥ in my MS. while in Pali it is manōmayā.

The work appears to be a complete one as at the end Aryadeva says:

चित्तविश्रद्धिमाधाय यन्मयोपार्क्तितं श्रमम्। चित्तविश्रद्धिमाधाय तेनास्तु सुखिनो जनाः॥ Let people be happy by making their hearts pure by the merit which I have acquired by making my heart pure.

Then comes the colophon; after the colophon we have the name of the scribe and then a portion of the well-known formula यथातानः त्रियाः प्राचाः सञ्चेषां प्राचिनां तथा। The writer apparently had no space in the leaf to complete the couplet and at first sight I could not make out that the work came to an end there.

(म) हायाने सुविस्पष्टमुक्तमेतत् सुविस्तरम् ॥ ६॥ धर्मापुदूलनेरात्याचित्तमात्रं नगौ मुनिः। ततोऽपि सर्वमुत्पन्नं गमकं सुनिराकुलम् ॥ ७॥ भावग्रहप्रभावेण(प्रहावेण) ग्रहीतान् प्रति चोदितम्। चागमेऽपि हि स्वातं विस्तरं कर्गात्मना ॥ ८ ॥ मनःपर्वेङ्गमा धर्मा मनः श्रेष्ठं मनोजवाः। मनसा च प्रदुखेन भाषते वा करोति वा ॥ ६॥ खिषता भिच्तुणादिष्टः भीष्रं गच्छति प्रेरितम्। ष्यायुष्य च म्रते तिसाद्वानन्तर्थेण ग्रह्मते ॥ १०॥ खग्लानेनाईतादिष्टः खगलं परिपौडितम्। उपस्थायकभिच्छः स स्टते तिसान्न दोषभाक् ॥ ११ ॥ चन्यसङ्गीनि चाल्यन्तु मारयन् दोषमञ्जते । इत्युत्तं विनये यतां न दोघो ऽदुष्ठचेतसाम् ॥ १२॥ न स्तूपखला दोषस्तत्संस्तारिधया मतम्। नेवलं पुराधाराधाः स्यादुखानन्तर्थेनारियाम्॥ १३॥ उपानयुगलं दला मुनेर्मू द्धि श्रभाश्यात्। अपनीय तथा चान्यं राज्यं पालमवाप्नतः ॥ १४॥ तसादाश्रयमूला चि पापनम्मयवस्थितिः। इलुक्तमागमे यसात् नापत्तिः श्रभंचेतसाम् ॥ १५॥ खाधिदेवतयोगाता जगदर्थकतोद्यमः। भुञ्जानो विषयान् योगान्मचते न चलिष्यति ॥ १६॥ यथैव विषतलज्ञो विषमालोक्य भन्तयन्। केवलं मुच्यते नासौ रोगमुक्तञ्च जायते ॥ १७॥ मायामरीचि-गन्धर्वनगर-खन्नसन्निभम्। जगत्मर्वे समालोका किं कर्य केन सुज्यते॥ १८॥

बाला मज्जन्ति रूपेषु वैशाग्यं यान्ति मध्यमाः। खभावज्ञा विमुच्चन्ते रूपस्योत्तमबुद्धयः॥ २०॥ विचिन्य समयं सळें देवताप्जनाविधिम्। श्रद्धमालोका निः प्रद्धं भोक्तयं मन्त्रचोदितम् ॥ २१ ॥ शोखं बोधं तथा दीपं अङ्गरचययोगतः। अनामाङ्गुष्ठवक्राभ्यां प्रीययेच तथागतान्॥ २२॥ यत् सत्यमिति बालानां तिनाया खल् योगिनाम्। कायेनैव तु सम्माप्तं न बद्धों न च मुच्यते ॥ २३ ॥ संसारं चैव निर्वागं मन्यन्ते तत्त्वदर्शिनः। न संसारं न निर्व्वागं मन्यन्ते तत्त्वदर्भिनः ॥ २८ ॥ विकल्पो हि महाग्राहः संसारोदधिपाटकः। खविकल्पा महात्मानो मुचन्ते भवबन्धनात् ॥ २५ ॥ ग्रङ्गाविषेग बाध्यन्ते विषेगीव एथकजनाः। तामेवोत्खाल्य निर्मूलं विचरेत् करुणात्मकः॥ २६॥ यथैकः साटिकः खच्छः पररागेगा रज्यते । तथैव चित्तरत्ननु कल्पनारागरञ्जितम्॥ २०॥ प्रकृते कल्पनारागैर्विविक्तं चित्तरत्नकम्। चादिशुद्धमनुत्पनं निजरूपमनाविलम् ॥ २८॥ तत्तदालेन कर्त्तवं यदादाविगर्हितम्। स्वाधिदैवतयोगेन चित्तनिम्मलकारिया॥ २६॥ रागामिविषसंयुक्ता योगिनां शुद्धचेतसा । कामिताः खलु कामिन्यः कामामोच्यपलावद्याः॥ ३०॥ यथा खगमडं ध्याला गारुडिको विषं पिवन् । करोति हि विषं साध्यं न विषेणाभिभूयते ॥ ३१ ॥ द्वादभ्रयोजनयासं चक्रं वै भ्रिरिस स्नमन्। बोधिचित्तमनुत्पाद्य चापनीतिमिति श्रुतिः॥ ३२॥ बोधिचित्तं समुत्पाद्य सम्बोधी कृतचेतसा। तद्गास्ति यद्ग कर्त्यं जगदुद्धरगाश्यया॥ ३३॥ चादिशुद्धमनुत्यनं निःखभावमनाविलम् । जगत् भावेन संप्रयन बद्धो न च मुखते ॥ ३४॥

विचिन्य विधिवद्योगी देवतागुणविस्तरम्। रागयेत् रागचित्तेन रच्यते न च मुच्यते ॥ ३५॥ किं कुमीः कलया लभ्या विचिचा भावप्रक्तयः। विषाज्जा(ब्रा)तो यथा कश्चिदिषेगीव तु निर्विषः ॥ ३६ ॥ कर्णा ज्लं जलेनैव कराटकेनैव कराटकम्। रागेगीव तथा रागमुद्धरन्ति मनीषियाः ॥ ३०॥ यथैव रजको वस्त्रं मलेनैव तु निम्मलम्। कुर्यादिज्ञस्तयातानं मलेनेव तु निर्मालम् ॥ ३८ ॥ यथा भवति संशुद्धो रजोनिष्टष्टर्पणः। सेंवितस्तु तथा विज्ञेद्दीषाद्दोषविनाग्रानः॥ ३८॥ लोइपिएडो जले चिप्तो मज्जवेव तु केवलम्। पाचीक्ततं तदेवान्यं तारयेत् तरित खयम्॥ ४०॥ तदत् पात्रीकृतं चित्तं प्रज्ञोपायविधानतः। भुञ्जानो मुच्यते कामं मोचयत्यपरानिष ॥ ४१ ॥ दुर्विज्ञैः सेवितः कामः कामो भवति बन्धनम्। स एव सेवितो विज्ञैः कामो मोच्चप्रसाधकः॥ ४२॥ प्रसिद्धं सहसालोका चारं विषविनाश्चनम्। तदेव प्रियाभिः पौतं सुतरां विषवर्द्धनम् ॥ ४३ ॥ जले चौरं यथाविष्टं हंसः पिवति पिख्तः। सविषान् विषयांक्तदद्गतामुताच परिष्ठतः॥ ४४॥ यथैव विधिवद्भृतां विषमप्यम्यतायते। दुर्भन्नं प्रतप्रादि बालानान्तु विषायते ॥ ४५॥ इदमेव हि यचित्तं शोधितं हेतुभिः शुभैः। निर्विक्त परालमं भाति प्रक्रतिनिर्मलम्॥ ४६॥ यथा विद्धः क्रभोऽप्येष तैलब्द्यादिसंस्कृतः। दीपो निर्मलनिष्कामाः स्थिरिक्तिमिरनाप्रानः ॥ ४०॥ वटवी जं यथा सूच्यं सहकारसमन्वितं। प्राखा-मूल-प्रलोपेतं महारह्वविधायकं॥ ४<u>८</u>॥ चरित्राचूर्णसंयोगादणीन्तरमिति स्रुतं। प्रज्ञोपायसमायोगाद्धमाधातुं तथा विदुः॥ ४८ ॥

प्टतञ्च मधुसंयुक्तं समांसं विषतां व्रजेत्। तदेव विधिवद्गतामुल्बरन्तु रसायनं ॥ ५०॥ रसस्पृष्टं यथा तामं निर्देशिकाञ्चनं वजेत्। ज्ञानरद्वात्तया लोगाः लोगाः कल्यायकारकाः ॥ ५१ ॥ च्चीनयानाभिरूषानां स्वाप्रद्वा पदेपदे। संग्रामजयतुन्तेन (स्तु तेषां) दूर एव व्यवस्थितः॥ ५२॥ मद्यागाभिरूढस्तु करुणाधमीविर्मातः। क्रपानयधनुर्वायो जगदुद्धरयाप्रयः॥ ५३॥ महासत्त्वो महोपायः स्थिरबुद्धिरतन्द्रितः। जिला दुक्तरसंग्रामं तारयन्यपरानिष ॥ ५८ ॥ पश्चवोऽपि हि क्षिश्चन्ते खार्घमात्रपरायणाः। जगदर्धविधातारो धन्यास्ते विरला जनाः ॥ ५५ ॥ ग्रीतवातादिदुःखानि सहन्ते खार्थलम्पटाः। जगदर्घप्रवत्तास्ते न सहन्ते कथं नु ते ॥ ५६ ॥ नारकाण्यपि दुःखानि सोष्वानि क्रपालुभिः। भ्रीतवातादिदुःखानि कस्तान्यपि विचारयेत्॥ ५०॥ नानिष्ठकल्पनां कुर्योद्गोपवासं न च क्रियाम्। स्नानश्रोचं न चैवाच ग्रामधर्मां विवर्ज्ञयेत्॥ ५८॥ नखदन्तास्थिमञ्जानः पितुः शुक्रविकारजाः। मांसप्रोणितकेप्रादि मालप्रोणितसम्भवम्॥ ५६॥ इत्यमश्रविसम्भतः पिखो स्त्रश्रविप्रितः। कथं सन् तादृशः कायो गङ्गास्नानेन शुध्यति ॥ ६०॥ न स्त्रश्रुचिघटस्तोयेः चालितोऽपि पुनः पुनः। तददश्रचिसम्पर्यः पिराडोऽपि न विश्वध्यति ॥ ६१ ॥ प्रतरत्रिय गङ्गायां नैवं श्वा शुद्धिमर्छति । तसाद्रमंधियां पुंसां तीर्थसानन्तु निष्मालम् ॥ ६२॥ धर्में। यदि भवेत् खागात् कैवर्त्तागं छतार्थता । नतन्दवं प्रविष्टानां मत्यादीनान्तु का कथा ॥ ६३ ॥ पापच्चयोऽपि स्नानेन नैव स्यादिति निश्चयः। यतो रागादिबुद्धित्त दृश्यते तीर्थसेविनाम् ॥ ६४॥

रागो देवस मोहस ईर्घा हमा च सर्वदा। पापानां मूलमाख्यातं नैषां खानेन श्रोधनम् ॥ ६५ ॥ चातातीयग्रहादेते सम्भवनी इ जन्मिनाम्। अविद्याहेतुकः सोऽपि अविद्या भान्तिरिष्यते ॥ ६६ ॥ रीप्यबुद्धियं या सुत्ती सुतितृष्टे निवर्तते । नैरात्यदर्भागत् सापि निर्मूलमवसीदति ॥ ६० ॥ सर्पबुद्धियथा रज्जौ रज्जुदृष्टे निवर्त्तते । सर्पबुद्धिः पुनस्तच नैव स्थादिष्ट जन्मनि ॥ ६८॥ सत्यबुद्धिस्तथाऽत्रापि वचचानाविवर्त्तते । न भूयः सम्भवेत्तच दाधवीज इवाङ्करः ॥ ६८ ॥ नैरात्यश्रुचिसंख्यः पिग्छः प्रक्ततिनिमीलः। तस्य सन्तापने धन्मः कथं वालैर्विकस्पितः॥ ७०॥ चन्द्रोदयव्ययञ्चापि अपचितिधिकल्पना। सूर्योदयययेनापि दिवाराचियवस्थितिः॥ ७१॥ पृव्वीदियवद्वाराखः प्रब्दचयविकल्पना। वारनच्चत्रशायादि सर्वलोका विकल्पितम्॥ ७२॥ ग्रीतोषावर्षगापेचां तथेवस्तुकत्पना । खनमीपनभोगोऽयं सुभासुभग्रहादितः॥ ७३॥ अविद्याकर्दमालिप्तं चित्तचिन्तामियः पुमान् । प्रवत्तः चालितुं विद्वान् कोऽविद्यां वह्रयेत्ननः॥ ७४॥ न वारतिथिनच्चचदेशकालाद्यपेच्यात्। विचरविवेकल्पन्त निर्निमत्तमशक्वितः॥ ७५॥ यद्यदिन्त्रियमार्गलं यायात्तत्तत् खभावतः। सुसमाहितयोगेन सर्वबुद्धमयं वहेत्॥ ७६॥ चचुर्विरोचनो बुद्धः श्रवणो वच्चश्रून्यकः। व्राणय परमाचैस्त पद्मनतेश्वरो मुखम्॥ ७०॥ कायः श्रीहरको राजा वच्चसत्त्वञ्च मानसम्। एवं सम्यक् यदा योगी विचरेत् करुणात्मकः॥ ७८॥ सिद्धान्तो निर्दिकस्पोऽसौ स्थिरकस्पस्त धीधनः। यधेष्ठचेष्ठायाद्वारी सर्वभुक् सर्वक्तया॥ ७८॥

सर्वेकामिक्रयाकारी यथा रुचिरचेष्ठितम्। उत्यितो वा निषसो वा चंक्रमो वा खयन्तथा॥ ८०॥ समग्डलप्रविद्यो वा सर्व्यावरगावानिष । स्वाधिदैवतयोगातमा मन्दपुर्णोऽपि सिध्यति ॥ ८१ ॥ अनेन सर्वसौरितं सर्वेबुद्धत्वमेव च। जन्मनी हैव तत्त्वज्ञः संप्राप्नोति न संप्रयः॥ ८२॥ यथा प्राक्तको लोको योगिलोकेन बाध्यते। बाध्यन्ते धीविश्रेषेया योगिनोऽप्यत्तरोत्तरेः॥ प्रा महाप्रज्ञा महोपाया महाक्रपाधिमो द्यतः॥ महायानसमुद्धं महासत्त्वस्य गोचरम्॥ ८८॥ यलाल्पनामसंख्याये न प्राप्तं बक्तिभर्मतेः। जनमन्यनेव बुद्धलं प्राप्यते नःच संप्रयः॥ ८५॥ महायानस्य माहात्यात् पुरायज्ञानस्य सम्भवः। सर्वज्ञलपदं रम्यं सद्यो जन्मिन लभ्यते ॥ ८६॥ चागमश्रुतिचिन्ता तु महायाने तु ग्रह्मते। व्याप्रयानुप्रयाभेदाद्यानभेदः प्रकार्यते ॥ ८०॥ अन्य वोधिमोच्चोऽयमन्यया बोधिचारिका॥ अन्या चित्तविशुद्धिस्य पालमन्यदि होच्यते ॥ ८८॥ समीपं निर्मलादशे चिरं निर्मलचन्त्रयः। यथा भाति सुविस्पष्टं खच्चप्रक्तिनिर्भेत्रम् ॥ ८८॥ विध्तकल्पनाजालं विस्पष्टश्रद्धचेतसा । योगिनाञ्च तथा ज्ञानं प्रज्ञानिर्मलद्र्पेगीः ॥ ६०॥ सूर्यकान्तसमाञ्चिष्ठसूर्यकान्तमगौ यथा। सहसा प्रज्वलयिः समर्थः खार्थसाधने ॥ ८१ ॥ च्यपास्तकल्पनाजालं सूर्य्यकान्तनिमं मनः। प्रज्ञासूर्यांश्रसंस्मिष्टं तद्यवलित योगिनाम् ॥ ६२ ॥ कारुदयनिघर्षेण यथा ज्वलति पावकः। चारिमधान्तसंशुद्धः स वै वस्तुप्रसाधकः ॥ ८३॥ प्रज्ञोपायसमायोगाद्योगाद् ज्ञानं तथा विदुः। यथैवैकप्रदीपोऽयं वर्त्त्र्यन्तरसमाश्रितः॥ ८४॥

यथा स्थानं यथा खाधं करो खुचैः प्रकाग्रनम्। नानाधिमुक्तिसत्त्वानां यथाक्तत्यमनुखयेत्॥ ६५॥ निदेषं भीतलं हृदं सर्व्याधिवनाभनम्। प्रज्ञाचीरमहोपायनिरत्नमथनोत्यितम् ॥ ६६ ॥ स्तुर्यानन्तमूर्त्तिस्तु प्रचौपायविभावनैः। विधिज्ञो हि यथा किसत् चौरादमतमुद्धरेत्॥ ८०॥ विश्रद्धधमीधातुः स श्रभाश्रभविनाश्रनः। यथा लतासमुद्भतं फलपुष्यसमन्वितम् ॥ ६८॥ यथैकच्च णसंबोधिः संभारद्वयसंयुता। ... ... ... धर्षणाकर्षणादिकम् ॥ ८८ ॥ मद्यमांसरतो योगी कुर्व्वनप्युपलभ्यते । ... ... मादर्भः समीच्यते ॥ १००॥ महायाने यतोऽद्यापि मन्त्रसामर्थ्यदर्भगात्। मात्दु चित्रसम्बन्ध ... ... ... ॥ १०१॥ .. ... जगदाच्च तथागतः। पञ्च बुद्धात्मकं सुकं भोणितञ्चापि तादृशम्॥ १०२॥ तन्मयः खलु पिराहोऽयं को विप्रः कञ्च वान्यजः। ... ... सळं प्ररीरं खल भिच्चवः ॥ १०३॥ अनिखं दुःखग्रुन्यञ्च न जातिने च जातिवान। कैवत्तींगर्भसम्भतः किस्चच ... ... ... ॥१०४॥ चित्तं यथा सुखं ध्यायन् सम्बुद्धोऽयमनागतः। सर्वकामोपभोगोऽस्तु रमय मुक्ततोऽभयात्॥ ११२॥ मा भैष्ठा नास्ति वः पापं समयो दुरतिक्रमः। मन्त्रसंस्ततकाष्ठादि देवलमधिगच्छति ॥ ११३॥ किं एनः ज्ञानवान् कायः कार्यमोच्चिवचेष्ठितम्। प्राक्तत्वमङ्कारं परित्यच्य समाहितः॥ २१॥ प्रज्ञोपायविधानेन क्रियामिमाङ्गमाचरेत्। पद्भजातं यथा पद्मं पद्भदोषेन लिप्यते ॥ ११५ ॥ विकल्पवासनादोधेक्तथा योगी न लिप्यते । अनादिवासनापङ्गिर्विलिप्तं चित्तरत्नकम्॥ ११६॥ प्रचौपायजलेनैव ... ... ... खाधिदैवतयोगस्य स्थिरचित्तस्य धीमतः॥११०॥

मुक्तः कुदृष्टिमेघैस भासते चित्तभास्तरः। . . . . . . सहसा कल्पना घटे ॥ ११८॥ प्रकृत्या निर्मलः खच्छो ज्ञानदीपः प्रकाश्यते। सुप्रसिद्धानि भूतानि च्लित्ययिजनन्वायवः ॥ ११६॥ क्रियन्ते ह्यन्यथा विज्ञैर्मन्त्रसामर्थ्ययोगतः। सर्ववादपरित्यच्य ... समाचरेत् ॥ १२०॥ यस्य मन्त्रस्य सामर्थ्यं सूचादेवोऽपि सिध्यति । स्तीरतं न परित्याच्यं बोधिचित्तं तथा गुरुम् ॥ १२१ ॥ न ह्यातमा प्राणिनः केऽपि समयानप्यधिखयेत्। महारतं सकपूरं रक्तचन्दनयोजितम् ॥ १२२ ॥ चालिवचादिकच्चैव पच्चैतानप्यधिखयेत्। अन्येख समयेर्द्रवेखित्तस्योत्मर्धकारकः॥ १२३॥ मारुतचोभग्रान्यथं प्रीययेचित्तविष्याम्। मिच्चकापदमाचे या विषेगाप्यभिभूयते ॥ १२४ ॥ त्रग्मात्रां घणां लच्चां दूरतः परिवर्ज्ञयेत्। चान्तरालिकभावस्तु चर्ची वै पतनं यया॥ १२५॥ गुरोराचाञ्च सुदाञ्च कायामपि न लङ्घयेत्। गुणात्तस्य परं ग्राह्मं दोषा नैव कदाचन ॥ १२६॥ भ्ययुद्धं(?) वाचरं विज्ञाः खपरायतनमेव वा । ष्याचार्यः परमो देवः पूजनीयः प्रयत्नतः। खयं वष्ट्रधरो राजा साद्धाद्रपेश संस्थितः ॥ १२०॥ यथोदकमिशाः सम्यक् कलुषोदकप्रोषकः। सद्धमां ग्रास्त्रया प्रोत्तास्त्रित्तरत्नविश्रोधकः॥ १२८॥ प्रधीवान् प्रच्यते क्वापि प्रज्ञाचच्चविवर्ज्ञितः। उत्पादयेदतः प्रज्ञामागमाधिगमात्मिकाम् ॥ १२६॥ श्राद्धो ब्डिश्रुतः प्राची प्रकृषा कर्णात्मकः। जगद्ःखिवनाश्राय सुखोपायं स विन्दति॥१३०॥ चित्तविश्रुद्धिमाधाय यन्मयोपार्ज्जितं श्रमं। चित्तविश्रद्धिमाधाय तेनास्तु सुखिनो जनाः॥ क्रतिरियमार्थ्यदेवपादानामिति॥ खपरार्थहेतुना खाच हरिततेति सुभं मये लिखितम्। यथात्मानः प्रियाः प्रागाः सर्वेषां प्राणिनान्तथा।

Note on a Dialect of Gujarātī discovered in the District of Midnapur.—By George A. Grierson, C.I.E., Ph.D., I.C.S.

#### [Read July, 1898.]

Several interesting facts have come to light during the progress of the Linguistic Survey. Amongst them may be mentioned the discovery of a number of people who speak a dialect of Gujarātī in the Dāntan thānā of the Bengal District of Midnapur.

Amongst the languages returned to me as spoken in that District was Siyālgirī. The Siyālgirs are a criminal, nomadic tribe, numbering about 120 souls, who have a language of their own. They are not mentioned by Dalton or by Mr. Risley in their Ethnographical works. This language was unintelligible to the other inhabitants of the District, and was believed "to resemble Santālī." This was an easy supposition to make, as there are some 118,000 Santālīs in the District, whose language is equally unintelligible to the multitude.

In order to obtain materials for the second part of the Survey, specimens of every language spoken in each District are being collected. The specimens are all to consist of translations of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, and in order to assist the preparation of these, books of translations of the parable which had been already made into the principal languages of India have been distributed to the translators. cluded in these last was a Gujarātī version. In sending the Siyālgirī version to me, the Collector of Midnapur drew attention to the remarkable points of resemblance between it and the Gujarātī version to which I An examination of the Siyālgirī specimen fully have just alluded. justified the Collector's remarks. The very first sentence is almost pure Gujarātī. The resemblance was so unexpected that I thought it advisable to make further enquiries, so as to make sure that the specimen is a genuine one. There can now be no doubt on that point. translation had originally been obtained through the kind offices of Babu Krishna Kisor Acharji, the Secretary of the Midnapur District Board, and that gentleman has been good enough to send me the following note on the subject.

"A Sub-Inspector of Schools under the District Board was deputed to Dāntan with copies of the English and Bengali versions of the parable of the Prodigal Son, and he got the parable translated into the Siyālgirī dialect with the help of two men belonging to that tribe and of the Sub-Inspector of Police, Dāntan.

These two Siyālgirīs were both by their age and intelligence, best able to translate the parable, and as they could speak both Bengali and Hindī the parable was fully and correctly explained to them before they translated it, and so it is certain that they perfectly understood what they had to translate.

I then went through the translation very carefully, and by comparing it with the specimens of other dialects given in the printed book became convinced that it was altogether a separate dialect resembling Gujarātī.

Neither the Sub-Inspector of Schools nor the Sub-Inspector of Police knows Gujarātī, and I do not think the two Siyālgirīs who translated the parable of the Prodigal Son into the language spoken by them have ever heard of Gujarāt or know anything of Gujarātī.

In these circumstances there is I should think no room for doubt that the specimen sent correctly represents the dialect spoken by the Siyālgirīs.

I have since obtained some additional particulars relating to the Siyāl-girīs which I beg to give below with a view to facilitate their identification with any other tribe in India.

Unfortunately there is nothing like tradition prevalent among them as to whence they came and when they came to Dāntan. This is apparently due to their having been a wandering tribe for many generations before they came and settled in this district. People like the Siyālgirīs generally have a short memory, and they do not appear to have any songs or ballads in their language throwing any light on their previous history.

They do not even know whether there are any other sections of their tribe living in any other part of India.

In this district the Siyālgirīs are found in the following villages:-

1. Nimpur.

4. Dhukurda.

2. Gömunda.

5. Saipur.

3. Lālmohanpatna.

And also in Suga and Simla in District Balasore.

From the information that I have been able to collect regarding this tribe it would seem that they first appeared in this district about 150 years ago.

During this period both their manners and customs have become thoroughly Hinduised.

They are now divided into four classes:-

1. Jānā.

3. Dās.

2. Pātrā or Pātar.

4. Har.

All these are Hindu patronyms.

How they became so subdivided—either by intermarriage with their Hindu neighbours, or by their desire to raise themselves up to the level of

the latter by assuming their patronyms—is not known. But the contempt with which they are treated by the Hindūs, owing to their thieving propensity, precludes the possibility of intermarriage between these two classes of people. Indeed the name of Siyālgirī has become a bye-word—a term of reproach—and whenever a Hindū takes to thieving as his profession here. is said to have turned a Siyālgirī.

The Siyālgirīs have Brāhmans for their priests, and so they have lost all traces of their original religion—if they had any when they first came into the district. These Brāhmans do not appear to have come with them, for most of those who officiate as priests at the religious ceremonies performed by the Siyālgirīs belong to the class of low-caste indigenous Brāhmans, and in society they occupy the same position as the Brāhmans of Muchīs, Chamārs, and other similar castes.

They worship the same gods and goddesses as their Hindū neighbours But their widows remarry and they bury their dead.

They do not appear to have any peculiar custom as to inheritance. As most of them are generally very poor and leave very little property when they die, the Siyālgirīs abide by the decision arrived at by their priests in the event of any dispute arising as to inheritance in any particular case.

I do not think these details will be of any material help in tracing the origin of this tribe whose appearance in Midnapur, occurring at a time beyond the memory of the present generation, cannot be satisfactorily

accounted for.

Their features also do not give any clue as to their origin. If they had any peculiarity it has disappeared altogether, and the Siyālgirīs can now be hardly distinguished from ordinary Bengali peasants.

It is therefore through their dialect alone that their origin can now be traced, and it is for these reasons that I give here the Siyālgirī equivalents for "salt" and "curry"—the two most common necessaries of life—which they call the (mithu = sweet) and energy (Khālan for Hindi Sālan) respectively.

The other peculiarities of their dialect will appear from the specimen already submitted.

An examination of the specimen shows that the language is a variety of the language of the Bhīls. The Bhīls speak a corrupt form of Gujarātī, and Siyālgirī agrees with Bhīlī when it differs from the standard form of that language. Thus, the Gujarātī for "I" is  $h\tilde{u}$ , but the Bhīlī is  $m\bar{o}$ , and the Siyālgirī is mu. There are some words which, so far as I am aware, are not in Bhīlī, and which I have been unable to identify as belonging to any known language, Mundā, Dravidian, Tibeto-Burman, or Aryan, of India. Such are badithēi meaning. "against," āgā meaning "father," and khām-lōyān "to hear."

I may mention that an excellent grammar and vocabulary of the Bhil language has been prepared by the Rev. C. S. Thompson.\* The

<sup>\*</sup> Ahmadabad, United Printing. Press, 1895.

habitat of the Bhīls is to the south of Mēwār, where the Central Provinces, Rajputānā, and Gujarāt meet. As already stated, their language is a dialect of Gujarātī, but, according to Mr. Thompson, there is, in the vocabulary, a substratum, of about six per cent. of words, which, while not corrupted from Gujarātī or Arabic and Persian, have no connexion with the Dravidian Languages of Southern India, or with Gōṇḍī, Santālī, or Kōl. The Siyālgirī seems to have preserved some of these words, which have been lost to Bhīlī. It would be interesting, if possible, to trace the wanderings of this tribe from their original home.

The following is the Siyālgirī version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son:—

<b>एक्</b>	मरद्ना	बय रि	देक्रा	घेद् ।	तिन्इ	विचे	नान्इ	
$ar{E}k$	$maradnar{a}$	baya d	$likrar{a}$	$thar{e}i.$	Tinha	$bicar{e}$	$nar{a}nha$	e.
A	man-to	two s	sons	were.	Their-of	among	(by) y	ounger
दिक्रा	चाप्नु	बाबाने		क है।	बाद	<b>r</b> !	मार	हिंच
$dikrar{a}$	āpnu			$\pmb{k}ahar{\pmb{e}},$	' bāl	<b>5</b> !	māra	hinkṣa
son	his-own	father-	to	it-was-s	aid, 'O-f	ather!	my	share
मार	दे। इन्च	बभद्रन	ì	हिंच	चाल्ड	<b>चाल</b> इ	. करि	
		•	•	•	$\bar{a}laha$		kari	
	give.' By hi			•				g-done
दिध ।		दन्	_				नान्इ	
didha.		dan					ānha	$dikr\bar{a}$
	ren. Few				with his f			
was-giv						•		
चाप्नु			•	-	पार्ह			
$\bar{a}pnu$					$par{a}rha$	0 0		
his-own	all sha	re taki	ng o	distant	country-	to wen	t. And	there
घन्	खरच्पत्र	करि	(न् च	शप्नुः	खब्		<u>a</u>	ख़ाइ
ghanu	kharach-pai	tra kar		pnu	khab		u	ŗāi
$\mathbf{much}$	expenditur			is-own	all (who	le prope	rty) w	asting
दिधु ।		सो	खब		खरच्पव		विधि	तो
didhu.		$Sar{o}$		•	kharach-			$tar{o}$
was-giv	ren				expendit	-		
(was thrown away). (having ran through the whole property)								
देखेंचे					<b>चिय</b>			
Jakhaha Jakhaha	bari	ākāl	ກດ	างว่าสากสา	Hina	hari	dukhī	
gountry	-in great	famine	fel	., v-g ogu. 11.	He	great	distre	ssed
Country	-III 81000		-0.	- · •		5-040	GID VI O	

थर गिय। तिन्द रखाती जाउ तोच् गाम्डामि एक thai-giya. Tinha  $ar{e}lar{a}tar{o}$   $ar{j}ar{a}u$   $tar{o}c$  $g\bar{a}mr\bar{a}mi$  $\bar{e}k$ became. then going that village-inhabiting  ${
m He}$ one मानखान् डेल भालि रिइ। तिन्द चापन् बिले Tinha āpnu  $mar{a}n$ - $khar{a}n$   $har{e}la$   $jhar{a}li$  riha.  $bilar{e}$ man-of-rank shelter taking remained. By him his-own field-in घुस्रि चरान मुक्लि दिध। घुस्रि जो इत्रिया खाइन् ghusri carāna mukli didha Ghusri jō chatriya khāin swine to-feed sending was-given. Swine what husks were-eating श्राप्ना पेट् भराउँ खाँजे तिन्हे तो देइन्  $tar{o}$   $dar{e}in$   $ar{a}pnar{a}$   $par{e}t$   $bharaar{u}$   $khar{b}jar{e}.$   $Tinhar{e}$  those giving his-own belly to-fill it-was-sought. Him-to दिधु कोनि। पाकु खाक् हा जन् किन्ह तिन च didhu  $kar{o}ni.$   $Par{a}chu$ khāk-hāun tinha kinha by-any-one was-given not. Afterwards being-awakened by-him कर्छ। मार बाबान् केट्ला भाना दर्मो-पाउन् चाकेर्  $kah\tilde{u}$ , ' $m\bar{a}ra$   $b\bar{a}b\bar{a}n$   $k\bar{e}tl\bar{a}$   $jh\bar{a}n\bar{a}$   $darm\bar{o}$ - $p\bar{a}un$   $c\bar{a}k\bar{e}r$ कर्छ । it-was-said, 'my father-of how-many men wage-getting Servant दर्कार घनु क्य खादु पाँवे। चा च्याँखे भूँखे सु darkār ghanu chēya khādu pāwē, ā mu hyākhē bhākhē need more than food get, And I here of-hunger मरा सु दाँत उठिन् मार खागाकेने पर्दं जाँउ। maru. Mu hata uṭhin māra āgākēnē parhã am-dying. I from-here rising my father-of in-vicinity will-go. मु गोखाँद बद्धेद तिन्ह कहिस् बाब्! तुँज्ञ चागल Tinha kahis, " $b\bar{a}b$ ! mu  $g\bar{o}kh\bar{\tilde{a}}i$   $badith\bar{e}i$   $t\tilde{u}hu$  $\bar{a}gal$ To-him will-say, "father! by-me God against thy before चाज नार् दिक्रा बुखि पाप् किधु। स्रोलिख . सु  $ar{o}lakhi$ pāp kidhu. tār dikrā buli Mu $\bar{a}u$ sin has-been-done. I again thy son being-called described रक् दर्मो-पाउन चाकेर् पारिम् कोनि। मिन्हे ব্ৰ करि pāris kōni. Minhē tu ēk darmō-pāun cākēr kari will-be-able not. Me-to thou a wage-getting servant making **चाप्**नु तिन्द उठिन् tīnha uṭhin **घागाकेने** राख्। पाइ गिय।  $ar{a}pnu$ rākh." 'Pāchu āgākēnē giya.keep." 'Afterwards he having-risen his-own father-to went.

रगससे जोवान रन्ने वेकरा चागा पावे। तिनच  $t\bar{e}krar{a}$  $rah\bar{e}$  $\bar{a}q\bar{a}$ jōwān pāwē. Tinha  $\bar{e}glast\bar{e}$ by-his father at-distance remaining to-see it-was-got. Him **उ**ण्डलमे **ला** सिन् दयाबि जार्न्। दुन्इ  $l\bar{a}sin$ jāin,  $und\bar{e}l$ - $m\bar{e}$ Inha $day\bar{a}bahi$ running by-the-neck being-kind (affectionate) going, By-him तिन्हे दिधा। कडंं. दिवरा लेइन। बचड़ा  $didh\bar{a}$ .  $Dikrar{a}$  $tinhar{e}$ kahũ,  $l\bar{e}in.$ bucraBy-the-son him to it-was said, kisses were-given. taking, गोखाँद बदिचेद बाब! चाच तेरा चागल षाप किथा .gōkh**ã**i badith**ē**i 'bāb!  $t\bar{e}r\bar{a}$  $ar{a}gal$ kidhu.  $\bar{a}u$  $p\bar{a}p$ 'O-father! by-me God against before thy sin has-been-done. पारिस् दिक्रा बुलि स्रोलिख तार कोनि । स् षाउर dikrā buli  $\bar{o}lakhi$  $t\bar{a}r$ pāris kōni."  $\bar{a}ur$ mu Ι being-called described will-be-able not. again thy son चाकेर्ने कडं, चेल चापना खाउ बाब लकडाāpnā  $c\bar{a}k\bar{e}rn\bar{e}$ kahũ, ' hēlu  $B\bar{a}b$ khāu  $lukr\bar{a}$ By-the-father his-own servant-to it-was-said, 'soon good cloth रंटी र्न हे पराइहा दे। द्रन्हा हाते चार्न li $\bar{a}in$  $inh\bar{e}$  $dar{m{e}}.$  $Inh\bar{a}$  $par\bar{a}ih\bar{a}$ hātē  $\tilde{\imath}ti$ His bringing him-to put-on give. hand-to ring . taking चेमे चाउर गोड़े खाम्डा दे। दुन्हे लेर्न खादु-खाउन lēin khādu-khāun khāmṛā  $dar{e}$ .  $Har{e}mar{e}$  $inhar{e}$ qōŗē  $\bar{a}ur$ give. (Let)-us him-to taking dinner-eating feet-to shoes and दिक्रा मरि गिय रिइन जेसे गार जीवत खसी थार्न rahin.  $dikr\bar{a}$ mari-giya, jībat  $Jar{e}sar{ar{o}}$  $m\bar{a}ra$ thāin ::  $khus\bar{\imath}$ dead-went (was), alive For merry remain. my son द्वाजि गियत खुसी पाच्चोत लायस । तार् बाद् थायन lāyaha.' Tār bād  $par{a}ota$ khusī thāyan hāji giyata lost-went (was) found has-been.' After-this in-happiness to-remain लागा । lāgā. began.

दिक्रा विख्मो तिन्इ मोटो घरे ज्ञत । तो चाउन ।  $bilm\bar{o}$  $Tar{o}$ ghirē Tinha mōtō dikrahut a.āun field-in His elder By-him coming house son was.

लाचु बाज्नु खाम्-लोयान पाउँ। तब् तिन्द	स्क् चाकेर् <b>ने</b>
lācu bājnu khām-lōyān pāũ. Tab tinha	$ar{e}k$ $car{a}kar{e}rnar{e}$
dancing music to-hear was-got. Then by-hir	a servant-to
कान्हे बोलाइन् पुकु, चा खब् खुँ।	सो
	' Sō
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	t (is),' By him
दन्हे कर्डं, तार् भाद्य खाव	तार् चागा
$inhar{e}$ $kah\tilde{u}$ , ' $tar{a}r$ $bhar{a}iya$ $ar{a}wa$	$tar{a}r$ $ar{a}gar{a}$
him-to it-was-said, 'thy brother having-come	(by)-thy father
खाज खादु तैयार् किथु, किन्से	तिन्द तिन्हे
khāu khādu taiyār kidhu, kinsē	
preparation has-been-done, because	
dinner	•
has been prepared	
खुँथिज-खाज जोवान् पाउँ। तिन्इ	रिग किथ।
$kh\tilde{u}thiu\text{-}kh\bar{a}u$ $j\bar{o}w\bar{a}n$ $p\bar{a}\tilde{u}$ . $Tinha$	rig kidhu.
in-healthy-state to-see it-has-been got.' By him	anger was done.
घर्मिको जाद कोनि। पाचु तिन्च	खागा बाहार
Gharmikō jāi kōni. Pāchu tinha	$ar{a}gar{a}$ $bar{a}har{a}r$
House-to went not. Afterwards (by) his	U
बाउन्। बुभाइन् किथु। सो जवाब्	कर्के खाप्ना
āunbujhāinkidhu.Sōjawābcomingconsoling (him)was-done.Heanswer	karkē āpnā making his-own
	making ms-own
श्रागाने कहे, रत्ना बरख्से तारि सेवा	कर।
$\bar{a}g\bar{a}n\bar{e}$ $kah\bar{e}$ , ' $\bar{e}tn\bar{a}$ $barakh$ -s $\bar{e}$ $t\bar{a}ri$ $s\bar{e}b\bar{a}$	karu.
father-to says, 'so many years-from thy service	e has-been-done.
तारि चात् केदे पर्हिकोला कोनि। त	ें तु मन्हे
$tar{a}ri$ $ar{a}t$ $kar{e}dar{e}$ $parhikar{o}lar{a}$ $kar{o}ni.$ $T$	
thy word at-any-time been-disobeyed not. S	till thou me-to
केदे रक् बक्रिनु चेलिजको देइनि,	जो मार
kēdē ēk bakrinu cēliukō dēi-ni,	$jar{o}$ $mar{a}ru$
at any time a goat-of kid-to give-not,	so that my
बँधुने लेइन् ईँखे। त	ार् एडि दिक्रा
	$dar{a}r$ $ar{e}hi$ $dikrar{a}$

रहिन वहिंबन खाते तार खाबज खादु । स्य kahabin khātē rahin  $t\bar{a}r$   $kh\bar{a}bja$ jō · khādu, hiya by-whom harlots with remaining thy property eaten-up, he तियार द्निग्डिये खादुखाउ किथ। जब चाव त ini-guriyē khādu-khāu taiyār kidhu.' jabtuāwa came by-thee for-him dinner prepared was-made.' when वर्ड, तिन्हे सो दिक्रा तु बरोब्बर मार् रह। '  $dikrar{a}$  tu $S\bar{o}$  $tinhar{e}$ kahũ, barobbarmār raha. it-was-said, 'O-son thou my By him him-to always art. या सो खब् खुमी माच जरज ताच ।  $Khusar{\imath}$ Māru jēţlu thā sō khab tāru. (is) thine. (Being) merry (for his return) all-that is it all My

गियत जीवत् जार्न् रिइ। तार् मरि भाइ्थ **एयब** या द्न  $jar{a}in$ riha.  $T\bar{a}r$  $bh\bar{a}iya$  $\bar{e}yab$ jibatmari giyata, thāin right is. Thy this brotherdead went (was), alive being

श्राव, द्वांज शियत पाँव  $\bar{a}wa$ ;  $h\bar{a}ji$  giyata,  $p\tilde{a}wa$ .' has-come; lost went (was), has-been-found.'

# On Primary Suffixes in Kāçmīrī.—By G. A. GRIERSON, C.I.E., Ph.D., I.C.S.

#### [Read August, 1898.]

These are treated in the Krdanta- $prakriy\bar{a}$  of  $\bar{1}$ cvara-kaula's Kac- $m\bar{i}ra$ - $cabd\bar{a}mrta$ . They form nouns (including adjectives and participles) by direct accretion to verbal roots. Many of them would be properly classed as verbal forms.

1. an  $\bar{a}n$ . This is used to make present participles. It does not change for gender or number, and is added direct to the root (ix. i. 2). Thus,—

ROOT.

PRESENT PARTICIPLE.

कर kar, do.

करान् karān, doing.

बोज़  $b\bar{o}z$ , hear.

बोज़ान्  $b\bar{o}z\bar{a}n$ , hearing.

If the root ends in a vowel, the letter  $\mathbf{a}$  w is inserted (3). Thus,—

दि di, give.

दिवान् diwān, giving.

खि khi, eat.

ख्यवान khyawān, eating.

चि ci, drink.

चवान cyawān, drinking.

Note that all verbs ending in  $\xi$  i change  $\xi$  i to u ya, except ni, take,  $\xi$  di, give, u yi, come.

This form is frequently used adverbially (4). Thus परान् परान् करन् parān, parān, karun, coming, coming, he made it.

This form corresponds to the Sanskrit present participle.

2. হয় ith. Used to form a past participle absolute or conjunctive participle, corresponding to the Sanskrit conjunctive participle in লা  $tv\bar{a}$ , or য ya (ন tya). Thus,—

कर kar, do.

करिष् karith, having made.

<sup>1</sup> References, here, and elsewhere, to Içvara-kaula's Kaçmīra-çabdāmṛta.

J. 1. 25

A preceding long चा  $\bar{a}$  (not short च a) is modified. Thus,— दार  $d\bar{a}r$ , place. दिश्  $d\bar{a}rith$ .

भो  $\bar{o}$  and ए  $\bar{e}$  become ज  $\bar{u}$  and  $\bar{\chi}$   $\bar{i}$  respectively before this prefix (14,15). Thus,—

बोज़ bōz, hear.

बूज़िष् būzith, having heard.

मेन mēn, measure.

मीनिय् mī nith, having measured.

If a root ends in  $\xi$  i, the final  $\xi$  i, together with the suffix become yăth (ix. i. 7, 8). Thus,—

हि hi, take.

च्चय hyăth, having taken.

खि khi, eat.

ख्य khyăth, having eaten.

Exceptions are—

नि ni, take.

निथ् nith, having taken.

िय di, give.

विष dith, having given.

दि yi, come.

दिथ yith, having come.

When the root बुड wud, fly, signifies  $m\bar{o}k$ , final release, it becomes बुजिय wujith, having obtained final release; but बुजिय wudith, having flown (ix. i. 9).

The root मेष्राव maṣarāv, cause to forget, usually forms मेष्राविध् maṣarāvith, regularly, but in the phrase 'to cause to forget death,' it becomes मापविध māṣawith. Thus,—

मरन् मार्णविष् marun māṣawith, having caused (so and so) to forget death (ix. i. 10):

The suffix काथ kyath, may be added to this form. Thus, करिय् काथ् karith kyath, having done (ix. i. 6).

3.  $\xi$  i (ix. i. 11-15). This is used instead of  $\xi v$  ith, when the word is repeated to represent frequentative action. In this case both a preceding v a and a preceding v a are modified. Thus,—

कर kar, do.

निर्देश किंदि kari kari, having made over and over again.

सार mār, beat.

मार्र मार्र māri māri, having beaten repeatedly.

कार kār, boil.

कारि कारि kāri kāri, having boiled repeatedly.

As in the case of  $\overline{\xi}$  w ith, preceding  $\overline{\xi}$  and  $\overline{\xi}$  obecome  $\overline{\xi}$  i and  $\overline{\xi}$  respectively. Thus,—

चेट tsēt, pound.

न्नीटि में <u>ts</u>īṭi <u>ts</u>īṭi, having pounded continually.

बोज़  $b\bar{o}z$ , hear.

बूज़ि बूज़ि būzi būzi, having heard continually.

So also we have— ब्यह běh, sit.

बिंहि बिंहि bihi bihi, having sat continually.

When a root ends in  $\xi$  i, the final vowel together with the suffix become  $\forall ya \ (\check{e})$ ; or the form in  $\forall th$  may be used (12). Thus,—

fe khi, eat.

ख ख khĕ khĕ or ख्राय् ख्राय् khyăth khyăth, having eaten frequently.

चि ci, drink.

च च cĕ cĕ or चाय चाय cyăth cyăth, having drunk frequently.

Exceptions are, as usual,—

नि ni, take.

নি নি ni ni or নিখ নিখ nith nith, having taken frequently.

दि di, give.

दि दि di di or दिश् दिश् dith dith, having given frequently.

यि yi, come.

यि यि yi yi or यिथ् यिथ् yith yith, having come frequently.

4. बुन् wun<sup>u</sup> (fem. वंज् wạñ; plur. masc. वं नि wạn<sup>i</sup>, fem. वज़ wañĕ) used to form nouns of agency (ix. i. 25-27). Thus,—

कर kar, make.

करवुनु karawunu, a maker.

If a root ends in  $\xi$  i, खन aw is inserted and the  $\xi$  i changed to y. Thus,—

fa khi, eat.

ख्यववुनु khyawawunu.

चि ci, drink.

चववुनु cyawawun<sup>u</sup>.

Exceptions are,—

नि ni, take.

निववुन् niwawun<sup>u</sup>.

दि di, give.

दिववुनु diwawun<sup>u</sup>.

िय yi, come.

यिवबुन् yiwawun<sup>u</sup>.

- 5. वोस्  $w\bar{o}l^u$ , (fem. वाज्यञ्  $w\bar{a}j\check{e}\tilde{n}$ ; plur. masc. विस्  $w\bar{a}l^i$ , fem. वाज्यञ्  $w\bar{a}j\check{e}n\check{e}$ ) is also used to form nouns of agency. For examples, see below (ix. i. 28-31).
- 6. मास् grākh (fem. पार्काञ् grākañ, vide ante, p. 34). Also used to form nouns of agency (ix. i. 28-31).

These two last suffixes are really secondary ones, (see Sec. Suff. No. 9, 10). They are added to abstract verbal nouns, especially to that in Eq. un (No. 16), the Eq. un being changed to Eq. an. Thus,—

कर kar, make. करन् karun, making. करन्योलु karanwōlu, or करन्याल् karangrākh, a maker.

पर par, read. परम् parun, reading. परम्वोलु paranwōlu, or परम्याख् parangrākh.

If the abstract noun is feminine (see No. 31m) and ends in  $\overline{q}$  n, that  $\overline{q}$  n is changed to  $\overline{q}$   $\tilde{n}^{\overline{u}}$  or  $\overline{q}$   $\tilde{n}$ .

লান  $z\bar{a}n$ , (31m) know. ড়ান্ লান্থীলু (লান্থীলু)  $z\bar{a}\tilde{n}^{\bar{u}}w\bar{o}l^{\bar{u}}$   $z\bar{a}n$  (fem.) or লান্ন্  $z\bar{a}nun$   $z\bar{a}\tilde{n}w\bar{o}l^{\bar{u}}$ ) or লান্নীলু  $z\bar{a}nanw\bar{o}l^{\bar{u}}$ , (masc.) knowledge. or লান্মাল্  $z\bar{a}\tilde{n}^{\bar{u}}gr\bar{a}kh$ , (লান্মাল্  $z\bar{a}\tilde{n}gr\bar{a}kh$ ), or লানন্মাল্  $z\bar{a}nan-gr\bar{a}kh$ , a knower.

These two suffixes can only be used with feminine abstract nouns when the verb expresses a condition of the body or mind. Thus ज़ान  $z\bar{a}n$ , know, expresses a condition of the mind, and therefore we can say जांज्वो  $\bar{g}$   $z\bar{a}\tilde{n}w\bar{o}l^u$ . But the verb प्रज़् graz, roar, which also has a feminine abstract noun (see No. 31g.) प्रज़् graz, cannot form प्रज़्वो  $\bar{g}$   $grazw\bar{o}l^u$ , because the verb does not express a condition of the mind or body. We can only use the masculine abstract noun, thus, प्रज़्वो  $\bar{g}$   $grazanw\bar{o}l^u$ .

If a root ends in হ i, the হ i becomes য y before আৰ an, and আৰ an becomes আৰ ana. Thus,—

खि khi, eat.

खानवोजु  $khyanaw\bar{\imath}l^{u}$ , an eater. खानगाज्  $khyanagr\bar{a}kh$ , an eater. चानवोजु  $cyanaw\bar{\imath}l^{u}$ , an eater.

বি ci, drink.

Exceptions are,-

नि ni, take.

दि di, give.

यि yi, come.

7. नज् nal.

8. **लल** lal.

9. चल al, ल l.

निनवोल् ninawöl<sup>u</sup>, or निनम्। ख् ninagrākh, a taker.

दिनवोस् dinawolu, &c., a giver.

यिनवोस् yinawōlu, &c., a comer.

These three are used as follows with the roots  $f \in di$  and  $f \in di$  and  $f \in di$  in special senses, all obscene. Thus,—

दिनल dinal, an unchaste woman.

माच्यदिनल् mājědinal, "mātṛgāmī;" व्यञ्जदिनल् bĕñĕdinal, "svasṛgāmī," कोरिदिनल् kōridinal, "kanyāgāmī."

माच्यदिखल् mājědilal, "mātṛgāmī."

दावल dāwal, an unchaste woman.

माञ्चदावल्  $m\bar{a}j\check{e}d\bar{a}wal$ , " $m\bar{a}trg\bar{a}m\bar{i}$ ;" व्यञ्जदावल्  $b\check{e}\tilde{n}\check{e}d\bar{a}wal$ , " $svasr-g\bar{a}m\bar{i}$ ;" कोरिदावल्  $k\bar{o}rid\bar{a}wal$ , &c.

माञ्चदिल् mājědil, "mātṛgāmī," &c. (ix. i. 32-35).

10.  $\[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[ \] \[\] \[ \] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\] \[\$ 

कर kar, make.

कर् kara, (it was) made.

पर par, read.

पंत् para, (it was) read.

खन khan, dig.

खन khạna, (it was) dug.

This suffix is added to all transitive and impersonal verbs (i. e., verbs of the first conjugation), and, as a verbal form, is used when the logical subject (in the case of the agent) is in the first or third person.

It cannot be used when it is in the second person. Thus, and karu may mean, 'it was done by me,' or 'it was done by him,' but cannot mean 'it was done by you.' So and asu, it-was-laughed by me or by him.

In the case of Intransitive Verbs, it follows the conjugation of these verbs, and is only used in the case of those verbs which are known as "Listed Verbs" (vide A List of Kāçmīrī Verbs, ante, Vol. LXV, Part I, page 306). These I shall in future call verbs of the second conjugation. It is then used only in the 3rd person. Thus,—

चुल <u>tsal</u>, flee. चुल् <u>tsal</u>u, he fled.

Non-listed Intransitive Verbs, which I shall in future call verbs of the third conjugation, do not use this form in च , but take the Aorist form in चौच् auv, or चोच् ov, used in their case for the Past third person sing. Thus,—

चाउ vyaṭh, be fat. चाउँ vyaṭhyauv, (not चाउँ vyaṭhu), he was fat.

The final व v is dropped before suffixes, and we thus get व्यवीस् vyathyau-s, I was fat.

The following verbs are irregular (ix. i. 37, 38),—

चि ci, drink, makes चौव् cyauv (it was) drunk.

चि khi, eat, खीव khyauv (it was) eaten.

नि ni, take, न्यूव् nyūv (it was) taken.

Besides this there are other irregular forms, such as  $\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{q}}$   $dyut^{\mathbf{u}}$ , from  $\sqrt{di}$ , 'give'; which will be subsequently described under the head of verbs.

This suffix, ज् ", is frequently met in other nouns, which are not verbal forms, e.g., बंदु vyath", fat.

11. चौव् auv, or चौव्  $\bar{o}v$  (fem. एय  $\bar{e}y^a$ ; plur. masc. एय्  $\bar{e}y$ , fem. एय  $\bar{e}y^a$ ).

This is the termination of the Aorist Participle of verbs of the first and second conjugations, and of the Past Participle of verbs of the third conjugation. As regards its use, see No. 10. The final  $\frac{1}{2}v$  and  $\frac{1}{2}y$  are omitted before suffixes. The form is an old past participle, and can be used with all verbs.

12. मन्  $mat^u$  (fem. मन्  $mats^u$ ; plur. masc. मन्  $mat^i$ , fem. मन्  $mats^a$ ). This is used to form the true Past Participle. It is compounded with No. 11, in the case of verbs of the first and second conjugations

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and with No. 12 in the case of verbs of the third conjugation, and both members of the compound change for gender, number and case.

The word is also written and pronounced मृत्  $mut^u$ , (fem. मंच्  $ma\underline{t}\underline{s}^{\overline{u}}$ ; plur. masc. मृति  $mat^i$ , fem. मच्  $ma\underline{t}\underline{s}^a$ ) (ix. i. 40).

Examples of the use of this participle are,-

A. FIRST CONJUGATION. (Form 10).

केर्मतु karumatu, or केर्मतु karumutu, made.

#### SINGULAR.

Masc.

Fem.

Nom कैष्मंत karamatu.

कह्मचू  $kar^{ar{u}}mats^{ar{u}}$ .

Acc. वंरिमितिम् karimatis.

कर्यमच् karĕmatsĕ.

Ag. करिम्ति karimati.

करिमन्नि karimatsi.

PLURAL.

Masc.

Fem.

Nom. कर्रम्ति karimati.

कर्यमच्न karĕmatsa.

Acc. वंतिमत्यन karimatyan.

कर्यमचन् karĕmatsan.

Ag. विरमत्यौ karimatyau.

कर्यमन्त्री karĕmatsau.

Note,—1. The irregular declension of the first half of the compound.

2. The feminine termination of the singular, मञ् matsē. We should (according to iv. 51) except मञ्ज matse, but my paṇḍit assures me that मञ्ज matsē is the correct form. Compare p. 59, ante.

The above declension is as given by my paṇḍit, and is not given by  $\bar{I}$ -k.

B. SECOND CONJUGATION. (Form 10).

चंस्त्रं tsalumatu, or चंस्तुत् tsalumutu, fled.

Sing. Masc. इंजुमेतु tsalumatu.

Fem. चंज्रमंचू <u>tsaj</u> mats (vide ante, pp. 32, 33).

Plur. Masc. चं जिम्ति tsalimati.

Fem. चुच्यमच tsajematsa.

### C. THIRD CONJUGATION. (Form 11).

#### SINGULAR.

Masc.

Fem.

Nom. व्यवोमंतु vyathyomata.

यथेमंचू  $vyathy\bar{e}mats\bar{u}$ .

Acc. यथेमतिष् vyathyēmatis.

यथेमन्य vyaṭhyēmatsĕ.

Ag. व्यथेम्ति vyaṭhyēmati.

ययेमचि vya!hyēmatsi.

#### PLURAL.

Masc.

Fem.

Nom. व्यथेम् ति vyathyēmati.

यथेमच vyaṭhyēmatsa.

Acc. व्यथेमत्यन् vyaṭhyēmatyan.

ययमन् vyațhyēmatsan.

Ag. व्यथमत्यौ vyaṭhyēmatyau.

यथेमचौ vyathyēmatsau.

The following forms are irregular:-

FROM

PAST PARTICIPLE.

यि yi, come.

**चामंतु** विmatu.

चन्न ats, enter.

चामतु tsāmatu.

नेर nēr, issue.

द्रामंतु drāmatu.

त्रस pras, give birth.

णामंतु pyāmatu.

ज़ि zi, be born.

ज्ञामतु zāmatu.

सर mar, die.

मूर्मत् mūmatu, or मूद्मत् mūdumatu.

Of all these, except मूद्मंत् mūdumatu, the first number of the compound does not change for number or case. Thus,—

Sing. Masc. चामंतु तेmatu.

Fem. चामचू बेmats च.

Plur. Masc. आर्म्त amati.

Fem. चामन बेmatsa.

The forms for मूद्मंत् mūdūmata are.

Sing. Masc. मूद्मंत् mūdumatu.

Fem. मूमच् mūmatsu.

Plur. Masc. मूद्मित mūdimati.

Fem. मूमज mūmatsa.

In other words सूद्रमेत्  $m\bar{u}d^u m at^u$  is only used in the Masculine.

13. मृतु mutu, see No. 12 मृतु matu.

14. ভাৰ্য anay. This gives the force of the past conjunctive participle, negatived (ix. i. 51).

कर kar, make.

गर gar, make.

पर par, read.

पोड pōṭh, be fat.

हि hi, buy.

Irregular are,-

for ni, take.

दि di, give.

चि yi, come.

करनय् karanay, not having made.

गरनय garanay, not having made.

परनय् paranay, not having read.

पोडनय् pōthanay, not having become fat.

ह्यनय henay, not having bought.

निनय ninay, not having taken.

दिनय् dinay, not having given.

यिनय yinay, not having come.

15. अनी anī. This is the first of a series of forms, connected with the Sanskrit participle in अनीयः anīyaḥ. It is used as an impersonal future passive participle, like the Latin faciendum (ix. i. 50). Thus,—

कर kar, make.

पक pak, go.

व्य wŏth, rise.

चि ci, drink.

fe hi, buy.

Irregular, as usual are,—

fa ni take.

दि di, give.

िय yi, come.

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करनी karanī, it is to be made.

पकनी pakanī, it is to be gone.

व्यकी wŏthanī, it is to be risen (one must rise).

चनी cĕnī, it is to be drunk.

ह्मनी hĕnī, it is to be bought.

निनी nini, it is to be taken.

दिनी dini, it is to be given.

चिनी yinī, it is to be come.

16. 🖼 un.

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17. चन anu.

18. **चनु**  $un^u$ .

SINGULAR

These three are used indifferently for one another (ix. ii. 2, 3). The first is of the first declension, and the second and third of the second. Their declension is as follows:—

PLTIRAT.

	DINGULAR.	I LUKAL.
Nom.	करन् karun.	करन् karan.
Acc.	करनम् karanas.	करनन् karanan.
Ag.	करनन् karanan.	करनी karanau.
Obl.1	करन karana	करनी karanau.
Nom.	करनु karanu or करनु karunu.	कर्नि $kar^an^i$ .
Acc.	(not used).	(not used).
Ag.	कर्नि karani.	(not used).
Obl.1	करनि karani.	(not used).

If the root ends in  $\xi$  *i*, the first and third forms are not used (ix. i. 21, 24). We only have forms like,—

	Nom. Masc.	Acc. Sing.
िख khi, eat.	wig khyanu.	खनम् khyanas.
ff hi, buy.	ह्यनु hyanu.	ह्यनस् hyanas.
বি ci, drink.	चन् cyanu.	चनम् cyanas.
Exceptions, as usual,	The second secon	
नि ni, take.	निनु or न्युन nyunu.	निनस् ninas.

वि ni, take. विनु or न्युनु  $nyun^u$ . विनस् ninus. दि di, give. दिनु or युनु  $dyun^u$ . दिनस् dinus. यि yi, come. यिनु or युनु  $yyun^u$ . यिनस् yinus.

This is used,—

- (a) As an adjective.
- (b) As an abstract verbal noun.
- (a) As an adjective, it is equivalent to the Sanskrit participle in बनीयः anīyaḥ. Thus, करन् karun or कर्न् karanu, means 'it is to be

<sup>1</sup> The oblique form is that form which the agent case assumes before postpositions.

made' (masc.). Its feminine is करंज् karañ. Examples of its use are,—

इंस् पाठ इंस् परन् (or परंनु) yih pāṭh (masc.) chuh parun (or paranu), this lesson is to be read.

दह पूथि छह परंज् yih pūthi (fem.) chěh parañ this book is to be read.

This adjective is used in a peculiar idiom with the verb  $\pi = gatsh$ , go, be proper (Cf. French gaira). The past of this verb, in this sense is  $\pi = gatsh^u$ , not  $\pi = gauv$ . It is only used in the future and past tenses, not in the present. Examples of the idiom are (ix. i. 42).

च् गङ्ख् मार्न् (or मार्न्) tsah gatshakh māranu (or mārunu) you deserve a beating, literally you will go with propriety to be beaten.

न्ना गर्कि सुद् मार्न् <u>ts</u>ĕ ga<u>ts</u>hi suh māran<sup>u</sup>, you ought to beat him, literally, he will go to be beaten by you.

न्ना गिक् म ज़नान मार्ज् <u>tsĕ</u> ga<u>ts</u>hi sa zanāna mārañ, you should beat that woman, literally, that woman will go to be beaten (fem.) by you.

न्रा गंक् सुक् न्यचिवु मार्न् <u>ts</u>ĕ gatsh<sup>u</sup> suh nĕchyuv<sup>u</sup> māran<sup>u</sup>, you should have beaten that boy, lit., that boy went to be beaten by you.

न्ना गंक् प ज़नान मार्ज् <u>ts</u>ĕ ga<u>ts</u>hū sa zanāna mārañ, you should have beaten that woman.

The same form is used with the verb state lag, be proper, in much the same sense. This is only used in the Future and Past Conditional tenses (ix. i. 43). Thus,—

तत् लिंग च गक्त tạt lagi tsĕ gatshạn v, you should go there. Here the participle is impersonal, and the phrase is literally, the going there by you will be proper. If the object is feminine, the participle must be feminine. Thus,—

च्य स्ति मार्ज् स ज़नान tsĕ lagi mārāñ sa zanāna, you should beat that woman, literally, that woman will be proper to be beaten by you.

So, also in the Past Conditional तंतु जिम् गङ्ग tạtu lagihē gatshunu one (I, you, &c.) should have gone there.

The root पज़ paz, be proper, is used in exactly the same way (ix. i. 44). Thus, च्याजि सुद् सार्न् tsĕ pazihē suh mārunu you should have beaten him. Lit. He would have been proper to be beaten by you.

Instead of the agent case, the genitive can be used, in all these idioms (ix. i. 45). Thus we may say,—

चोनु गक्ति सुद् मार्न् cyōnu (instead of tsĕ) gatshi suh māranu.

चां ज़ गिक् स ज़नान भार् ज़ cyāñ (fem.) gatshi sa zanāna mārañ.

So also in the plural,-

च्यो्न गक्रन् तिम् मार््नि cyāni gatshan tim mārani, you should beat them.

चाज़ गङ्न् तिम मार्ज़ cyāñĕ gatshan tima mārañĕ, you should beat them (fem.).

Pronominal suffixes can also be added to the main verb (not to the participle) (ix. i. 46). The formation of these suffixes will be dealt with in the chapter on verbs.

गंद्र् करन् gatshu-s karunu, it should have been done to him.

गेड्य करन gatshu-y karanu, it should have been done for thee.

जग्यम् करन् lagy-as karun, it should be done for him.

पज़ाम् करन् pazy-am karun, it should be done for me.

(b) As a substantive, the form is used as a masculine Abstract Verbal Noun, or Infinitive (ix. ii. 2, 3 and ff). Thus,—

कर kar, make.

करन् karun, करन् karanu, or करन् karunu, the act of making, to make.

The accusative singular is used with the post-position कित् or क्युत्  $kyut^n$  (ix. i. 17) to form a dative. E.g., परनम् कित् paranas  $kyut^n$ , for reading. Thus,—

परनम् कित् प्रङ्क् paranas kyutu prang, a couch for reading. कित् kyutu is an adjective.

We thus have,-

परनस् कित् प्रङ् paranas kyutu prang, a couch (masc. sg.) for reading. परनस् किति गर paranas kiti gara, houses (masc. pl.) for reading.

परनम् किन् चूकि paranas kits cūki, a chair (fem. sg.) for reading. परनम् किन्न चोक्य paranas kits cōkĕ, chairs for reading.

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In all the above it will be seen that the essential meaning of the verb is active. A couch for reading means a couch for reading something,—e.g., a book,—and the verb is not changed whatever the gender of the object may be. Thus  $\mathbf{q}[\mathbf{q} \ p\bar{u}th^{i}]$ , a book, is feminine, but we still say

दह् पूथि (or द्रथ् पोय्य) परनम् कित् प्रङ्ग yih pūthi (or yith pōthĕ) paranas kyutu prang, a couch for reading this book.

We may also use the dative of other verbal nouns in the same way. Thus, चेंटनस् कित् tsēṭanas kyutu or (No. 30d.) चेंटस् कित् tsēṭas (masc.) kyutu, for grinding to powder; पज़नस् कित् grazanas kyutu or (No. 31g.) प्रज़ि कित् grazi (fem.) kyutu, for roaring.

But if the verb is used passively then it agrees with the subject in gender, and the form is no longer substantival but adjectival. Thus, 'a book for reading' means 'a book for being read,' and we must say,—
परंज किन् पूचि parañ kits pūth.

On the other hand we say परनम् किन् चूकि paranas  $ki\underline{t}\underline{s}^{\bar{u}}$   $c\bar{u}k^i$ , because the phrase means a chair for reading, and not a chair for being read.

Note that when the verb is used passively, it is in the form of the nominative feminine, not in the accusative, although preceding  $a = ki\underline{t}\underline{s}$ .

We may also use the nominative masculine before कित् kyutu (ix. i. 22, 23) when the verb is used passively. Thus प्रम् (or प्रम् or प्रम्) कित् धसुख parunu (or parun or paranu) kyutu pŏstukh (masc. sg.), a book for reading. We thus get the following adjectival forms when the verb is used passively,—

Masc. Sg. परंनु कित् घसुंख् paranu kyutu pöstukh, a book for reading.

(We cannot say परंनु कित् प्रङ्ग paranu kyutu prang, a couch for reading).

Masc. Pl. रन्नि किनि दाख् ranani kiti hākh, vegetables for cooking.

Fem. Sg. परंज् किन् पूषि parañ kits pūth, a book for reading.

Fem. Pl. करज़ किन्न काम्य karañĕ kitsa kāmĕ, businesses (fem. pl.) to be done.

These are all capable of declension. Thus,—(acc.) परनम् कितिम् घस्तकम् हुर् घवान् paranas kitis pŏstakas chuh thawān, he places a book for reading.

The oblique base of the form in चान् anu is used to indicate a purpose (ix. i. 18). I note that in poetry the form ends in चाने anē, not in चान ani. Thus,—

पर्नि (or poetical पर्ने) गङ्गान् कुड् parani (or poetical paranē) gatshān chuh, he goes to read. रननि गीव् ranani gauv, he went to cook.

When the word **पमख** samakh, meet, is used in this form, it means to pay a visit of condolence. Thus, **पमख**नि गौन् samakhani gauv, he went to pay a visit of condolence. Otherwise the ordinary dative of the verbal noun in **उन्** un is used. Thus, **पमखन** पुद्ध इंद samakhana putshy rūdu, he stopped to meet him (ix. i. 19).

This verbal form is used to form Inceptive and Desiderative compounds. Thus,—

Inceptive compounds, are made with the infinitive in अन् anw or उन् unw, and the verb हि hi, take (viii. i. 57). Thus, सुर् कुर् ख्यू लेखुनु ख्वान् suh chuh khāth lēkhunu hyawān, he begins to write a letter; करन् छ्वान् कुर् karun hyawān chuh, he begins to d. If the object is feminine, the feminine infinitive is used. Thus, सुर् कुर् ज़नान मार्ज् छ्वान् suh chuh zanānu māran hyawān, he begins to beat the woman. These forms are however, almost always used in the past tense. Thus, करन् छोत्न् karun hyatun, he began to read, (and is doing it now). तिम कुर् ख्यू लेखुन् छोत्मत् tami chuh khāth lēkhunu hyatumatu, he has begun to write the letter. Literally, by him the letter to-be-written has been taken. So तिम छार् ज़नान मार्ज् छोत्मत् tami chhēh zanānu māran hĕtsumatsu, he has begun to beat the woman (ix. i. 41).

Another way of forming inceptive compounds is to use the oblique form of the infinitive with the verb जा lag already mentioned. Thus,—
सुद् करनि जी suh karani lagu, he began to do.

सुद् लंग खय् लेखिन suh lagu khăth lēkhani, he began to write the letter.

सुर लंगु ज़नान मार्गन suh lagu zanāna mārani, he began to beat the woman. It will be observed that this form of the verbal noun does not change for gender.

Similarly, Desiderative compounds are made with the verb vitsh, wish. Thus,—

सुर् ख्य खेषुन् दक्रान् suh chuh khăth lēkhunu yitshān, he wishes to write the letter.

सुर् सुर् ज़नान मार्ज़ दकान suh chuh zanāna mārañ yitshān, he wishes to beat the woman.

त्मि दक् ज़नान मार्ज्  $tam^i$   $yi\underline{ts}h^{\bar{u}}$   $zan\bar{a}n^a$   $m\bar{a}ra\tilde{n}$ , he wished to beat the woman.

In the formation of this abstract noun the following irregularities appear (ix. ii. 4). Only one form of the infinitive is given, but the others follow the same rule,—

तस tal, fry.

तसुन् talun or तस्युन् talyun.

ৰল baz, fry, serve.

बजुन् bazun or बज्यन् bazyun.

Some verbs only use their Abstract Noun in the Feminine, and, moreover, are then sometimes irregular in their formation (ix. ii. 24 and ff.). They are the following:—

ABSTRACT Nouns.

ন্ন <u>tsar</u>, be inwardly wrathful দ্ববিদ্ <u>tsariñ</u>, inward wrath. (impersonally).

चुव tsuv, quarrel (impersonally). चुविञ् tsuviñ.

[These two, when used with other verbs, take the regular feminines in phrases like,—

श्रीम् द्वान् नर्ज् amis hets n tsarañ, he began to be angry. Literally, being angry began to him].

मोरव mōrav, bear (of pain, imper- मोर्वूझ् mōrav<sup>ū</sup>ñ. sonally).

मर्ज marts, be impatient (used im- मर्जूञ् marts  $\tilde{u}$   $\tilde{n}$ . personally).

- 19. **च**ञ् añ.
- 20. इञ  $i\tilde{n}$ .
- 21. জ্ञ  $\tilde{u}\tilde{n}$ .

These are all Feminine forms of the masculine verbal adjectives, and of the masculine abstract nouns or infinitives, in  $\exists q un^u$ , or  $\exists q un^u$  (Nos. 16-18). No. 19 is the regular feminine of all three, and is discussed under the head of those suffixes.

It is also specially used to form a feminine abstract noun in the case of the following verb.

चेन  $\underline{t}\underline{s}\underline{e}n$ , know by a sign, चेनवं म्  $\underline{t}\underline{s}\underline{e}nava\overline{n}$  the giving of a sign (ix. ii. 43).

In the case of the following verbs it is only used in the fem. pl. ( $= a\tilde{n}^a$ ) (ix. ii. 42),—

कड kaḍ, bring out. पांच्र pāsar, blame. श्रुक çruk, weep. कडज़ kadaña, blaming. पांच्रज़ pāsaraña, blaming. शुकज़ çrukaña, weeping.

A few verbs (mostly connected with female ideas, and mostly used impersonally) have no masculine forms, and are also discussed under the head of Nos. 16-18.

They have only feminine abstract nouns or infinitives in  $\xi = i\tilde{n}$ , or  $\xi = i\tilde{n}$ . For easy reference, I repeat them here.

The two following form their abstract or infinitives in  $\exists i \tilde{n}$ , and in no other way (ix. ii. 24). That is to say they have no infinitive in  $\exists i \tilde{n}$ , and in

त्र <u>tsar</u>, be inwardly wrathful, whether referring to a man or a woman, always used impersonally, and always in the feminine. Thus, तम् नंद <u>tsar</u> (fem.), of him or her inward wrath was felt, *i.e.*, he or she was inwardly angry. Abstract noun or infinitive निर्म् <u>tsariñ</u>, not न्र <u>tsarun</u> or न्र <u>पsaruñ</u>, inward wrath. न्र <u>tsarun</u>, does occur, but it is the abstract noun or infinitive of another verb, न्र <u>tsar</u>, increase.

Other examples of the use of this curious verb is तम् चरान् छह् tas tsarān chhĕh (fem.) he or she is inwardly angry. तम् चरि tas tsari, he or she will be angry. चुव tsuv, (ix. ii. 24) quarrel, also used impersonally, and in the feminine. Abstract noun or infinitive चुविञ् tsuviñ, quarrelling.

Examples of use,—

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Present tense, सुद् च्यान suh chhuh tsuvān, he is quarrelling.

Future tense, सुर् च्वि suh tsuvi, he will quarrel.

Past tense, only used in the feminine,—

निम चुन् tạmi tsuvū, by him quarrelling was done.

निम च्व tami tsuvū, by her quarrelling was done.

Note, that in the Past, it is always used impersonally, and in the feminine gender though it may refer to males.

We thus see that चूर tsar is always construed with the genitive (तम् tas), but चुन tsuv, in the Present and Future as an ordinary Intransitive Verb, and in the Past as an Impersonal Verb.

The two following verbs, form their abstract nouns or infinitives in  $\bar{n}$ , and in no other way.

मोरव  $m\bar{o}rav$ , (viii. iii. 25) bear pain, used impersonally and in the feminine in the past tenses only. Abstract noun or infinitive मोर्यञ्  $m\bar{o}rav^{\bar{u}}\tilde{n}$ .

Examples of the use of this verb,-

Present tense, सुर् कुर् मोरवान् suh chuh mōravān, he is bearing pain.

Future tense, सुद् मोर्वि suh möravi, he will bear pain.

Past tense, निम मोर्न् tạmi mōrạvi (fem. impersonal) (pain) was borne by him, he bore pain.

मन्न marts (ix. ii. 25), be impatient. Abstract noun, or infinitive, मर्नूञ्  $marts^{\bar{u}}\tilde{n}$ .

Examples of use,-

Present tense, तस् खाइ सम्तीन् tas chhĕh (fem.) martsān, of that man, or of that woman, there is impatience.

Future tense, तम् मिन्ने tas martsi, of that man, or of that woman, there will be impatience.

Past tense, तस् मंसू tas marts , of that man, or of that woman, there was impatience.

It is thus construed exactly like द्वर tsar.

The following verbs optionally form feminine abstract nouns or infinitives in  $\overline{\eta}$ , in addition to the ordinary masculine one in  $\overline{\eta}$  un (ix. ii. 26).

ख्स्  $kh^as$ , pluck the hair. In the case of this verb, ख्सुन्  $kh^asun$  (masc.) is used when men are referred to, and ख्रूज्  $kh^as^{\bar{u}}\tilde{n}$  (fem.) when women are referred to (sensu obsceno).

দৈল phits, forget; সম phoc, be inwardly angry; দুৰ phuh, be inwardly angry. In the last two the fem. abstract noun is used of the wrath of females.

बज़व wazav, moisten; बुज़ wuts, be burnt.

The following verbs optionally form the feminine abstract noun in  $\vec{\tau} = i\tilde{n}$ , in addition to the ordinary masculine one in  $\vec{\tau} = un$  (ix. ii. 27-32).

सार  $s\bar{a}r$ , feel (see No. 26); खन khut, dig from below; दुष tuv, close (of a flower); इव duv, sweep; इस dal, pass over; चक truk (see No. 30a), bite in pieces; ध्यक  $th\check{e}k$ , praise; नम्न nats, dance; नट nat, tremble; नम nam, bend; बुम wuz, appear (as water from a spring); बुट wuth, twist; बुप wup, burn inside; सिन liv, smear (makes सिनम् livin, or सिपम् lipin); खान lyav, lick; कर kar, do (करिम् karin, however, only means a mason's trowel); नट wat, twist (नटिम् watin means a collection); फर phar, steal (फरिम् pharin means a female thief). Thus, स्रोरिम्  $s\bar{a}rin$ , feeling.

If the secondary suffix অন্ al (sec. suf. No. 6) is ever used with any abstract verbal noun, it cannot be used with the masculine form, but only with the feminine form in হল iñ (ix. ii. 27). This ভাল al is only used with a few verbs. Thus, অনিল্ল thěkiñal, a praiser; নাইল্ল națiñal, a trembler, and so on.

22. चन् an, (masculine). Used to form masculine abstract nouns in the case of three verbs (ix. ii. 41). Thus,—

चि ci, drink.

चन् cyan (masc.) drinking

fe khi, eat.

ख्न khyan (masc.) drinking.

ki, place.

ह्मन् hyan (masc.) placing.

20. धन् an (fem.). Used to form feminine abstract nouns in the case of the following verbs (ix. ii. 35, 37) कपट kapat, cut; द्व dan,

shake out dust; नदाव nahāv, obliterate; पिख pil, arrive; फिर phir, turn over (pages); माज़ māz, be intent upon; मिखन milav, unite; मुन्नर mutsar, open; मूर mūr, shell (pease, &c.); ख्व lyav, lick; बुढ wuth, twist; बुढ wuh, be not extinguished; खांडर ādar, mix; खंडर khạnḍar, divide; बूट्र tshŏtar, make small; ज़ीट्र zīṭhar, make long; इंट्र tŏṭar, have insufficient means of livelihood; पीट्र pīṭhar, blame and instruct; फुट्र phuṭar, break; बंडर bạḍar, make great; बाग्र bāgar, divide; म्बट्र mŏṭar make thick; वोवर wōwar, shave metal.

Thus, कपटन् kapaṭan (fem.) cutting.

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The verb गिलव gilar, whirl about, forms गिलन् gilan, which means 'an attempt' (ix. ii. 36).

The verb नव nav, be new, forms नव्यव्या novaran, raking up an old story against a person (ix. ii. 38).

The verb जार lār, touch, forms जारन lāran, which means 'tremb-ling' (ix. ii. 40).

Some people use this form with the roots तंत्र tañar, dilute; तंत्र tatsar, make hot; स्थान् syazar, make straight (ix. ii. 39).

- 24. रब् rab. This is optionally used in the case of the root मध mas, to form a masculine verbal abstract noun (ix. ii. 5). Thus, मञ्ज् masrab, forgetting.
- 25. \(\neq^n\), this is optionally used to form masculine verbal abstract nouns from the three following roots (ix. ii. 6).

द्वर dŏdar, rot. द्वरं dŏdaru, rotting. ज्ज़र zŏzar, wither. ज्ज़र zŏzaru, withering. स्वर sŏsar, decay. स्वरं sŏsaru, decaying.

तक tach, pare, तक  $tach^{\bar{u}}$ , scratching (also तक  $t\check{a}ch$ ); रक rach, protect, रक्ष  $rach^{\bar{u}}$ , protection; क्ष  $t\underline{s}h\bar{a}d$ , search, क्षंड  $t\underline{s}\bar{a}d^{\bar{u}}$ , searching; क्षंड  $t\underline{s}h\bar{a}d$ , search (with a nasal), makes either काँड  $t\underline{s}h\bar{a}d^{\bar{u}}$ , or काँड  $t\underline{s}h\bar{a}d$ ; कान  $ch\bar{a}n$ , sift, कांच  $ch\bar{a}n^{\bar{u}}$ ; दोन  $d\bar{o}n$ , card cotton, दूज्  $d\bar{u}n^{\bar{u}}$ ; यार

 $th\bar{a}r$ , be quick, यांक्  $th\bar{a}r^{\bar{u}}$ ; बाँबर  $b\bar{a}bar$ , be quick, बाँबक्  $b\bar{a}bar^{\bar{u}}$ ; सार  $s\bar{a}r$ , feel, संक् $s\bar{a}r^{\bar{u}}$  (vide p. 210); चेन्द्र  $hand^ar$ , be cold, चेन्द्र  $hand^ar^{\bar{u}}$ .

27.  $\triangleleft a$  (masc.); used optionally to form masculine verbal abstract nouns in the case of the following verbs (ix. ii. 7).

कूम chomb, husk; ज्य zos, cough; बगार bagār, fry in oil; व्याद beh, sit; ज्यास lam, pull; जोस los, be weary; बुन wun, be unlucky.

Thus,  $g = ch \check{o}mb^a$ , the act of husking, and so on.

28.  $\blacksquare$  a (fem.) used optionally to form a feminine abstract verbal noun in the case of the verb  $\blacksquare$   $\blacksquare$   $\blacksquare$   $\blacksquare$   $\blacksquare$   $\blacksquare$   $\blacksquare$   $\blacksquare$  wung, to how like a dog, in a special meaning (ix. ii. 57).

Thus, बुंग wunga, lying awake at night on account of some care. बुंग wung, means a dog's howl.

- 29. चान् av. Used optionally in the case of the verb जद lad, send, build, elevate, push, when it means 'build,' to form a masculine abstract noun. जदान ladav, also means, the wages of building (ix. ii. 8).
- 30. —— (masc.). Several verbs optionally drop all suffixes to form abstract nouns. In such cases roots ending in hard consonants aspirate them in the nominative singular and plural. These roots are classed according to their final letters. In the case of causal roots ending in **Ta** av, the **Ta** av is dropped.
- (a) a k, certain verbs in a k and a a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k a k

ष्ट्रकव chŏkav, wash.

💌 tshok, become speechless.

उत tak, bite in two with a noise.

दुक tuk, bore like a rat.

द्वतव tökav, cause to disappear.

दुक thuk, bury.

चुक truk, cut to pieces, eat (vide p. 210).

यक thak, be weary.

पानव pākav, cook.

पुक phuk, blow up fire.

त्रक brak, clench with the teeth.

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Thus, guchokh, the act of washing. gutshokh, speechlessness and so on. The root una phuk becomes une phokh, when it means to puff.' Otherwise it is simply une phukh, the blowing of a fire.

(b)  $\pi$  g. This case is exactly similar to the preceding one. It occurs in the case of three verbs (ix. ii. 10). Thus,—

OPTIONAL FORM OF ABSTRACT NOUN.

द्वाव dŏgav, husk.

द्वग् dŏg, husking.

रंग rang, paint.

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रंग् rang, painting.

सगव sagav, water plants.

सग् sag, watering.

(c) বু  $\underline{ts}$  (ix. ii. 11). It occurs only in the case of the verb,—
বাঁর  $w\bar{q}\underline{ts}$ , cheat; abstract noun বাঁহ  $w\bar{q}\underline{ts}h$ , cheating.

(d) z t (ix. ii. 12).

नेड <u>tsēt</u>, powder; जूट lūṭ, rob; बाट wāṭ, join. These can form abstract nouns in **ड** ṭh. Thus, नेड <u>tsēṭ</u>h, pounding to powder.

(e) **v** d (ix. ii. 13).

गंड gand, tie; optional abstract noun, गंड gand, tieing.

(f) = n (ix. ii. 14).

खन khan, dig; खन tshěn, cut; optional abstract nouns, खन् khan, digging, खन् tshěn, cutting.

(g)  $\forall p$ . The following verbs optionally make their abstract nouns in  $\forall p h$  (ix. ii. 15).

काम्प kāmp, tremble; ऋप kṛp, cut with scissors; ज्ञाप क्ष्टिक्, chew (Cf. No. 31n.); ज़प zap, mutter prayers; टप ṭap, kick of a horse, &c.

Thus, काम्प kāmph, trembling, and so on.

(h)  $\pi$  m (ix. ii. 16).

जम bram, be in error; abstract noun, optionally, जम् bram.

(i)  $\tau r$  (ix. ii. 17).

चार cār, tie tightly.

चीर cir, wring out.

नार tār, cross over (active).

फुकार phukār, speak in anger, bubble up (of steam).

फार phyār, strain (liquid).

मार mār, beat.

खर sör, remember.

Thus, optional abstract noun, चार् cār, tieing tightly.

(j) **q** l (ix. ii. 18).

चल tsĕl, force inside (active).

हल tshal, cheat.

जल zal, scrape.

तोस  $t\bar{o}l$ , weigh.

दल dal, split (active)

में ल mēl, meet.

Thus, optional abstract noun, स्यल् tsĕl, forcing inside.

(k) \( w \) (ix. ii. 19).

ज़्व zuv, live.

ड्व duv, sweep.

नाव  $t\bar{a}v$ , heat.

ब्बह्ब wŏhav, curse.

These optionally form their abstract nouns in ৰ v. Thus, জুন্ zuv, life; অহব wōhav, cursing.

(l) \$\ s\ (ix. ii. 20).

रस ras, be juicy.

इसव hasav, incite.

Thus, रस् ras, juiciness; इस् has, inciting.

(m) \(\bar{\chi}\) (ix. ii. 21, 22).

ग्ह gah, grind.

चर् tsah, suck.

ग्र $g^ah$ , grinding; च्र् $\underline{t}s^ah$ , sucking. The former also makes ग्रं gas, grinding.

31. —— (fem.). Several verbs optionally drop all suffixes to form feminine abstract nouns. In such cases, roots ending in hard consonants aspirate them in the nominative singular. These roots are classed according to their final letters.

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In the case of causal roots ending in wa av, the wa av, is dropped. The following are the verbs:—

(a)  $\mathbf{a}$  k (ix. ii. 56).

च्क chak, scatter.

विक chik, sprinkle.

चमक camak, shine.

ट्क tak, run.

फूँक  $ph\tilde{u}k$ , smell.

भूँक  $ç\tilde{e}k$ , doubt.

Thus, इन् chăkh, (fem.) a scattering, a sowing of seed; ne çēkh (fem.), doubting.

(b) w kh (ix. ii. 75).

There is only one, and it is irregular. बेख  $l\bar{e}kh$ , write, makes बेफ  $l\bar{e}ph$ , a writing (nom. pl. बेफ  $l\bar{e}ph^a$ ).

(c)  $\pi$  g (ix. ii. 57).

ज़ाग  $z\bar{a}g$ , be watchful.

टाँग  $t\tilde{a}g$ , emit a loud cry.

दग dag, beat.

मंग mang, ask.

लग lag, be with.

जाग lāg, imitate.

बुंग wung, bark (of a dog).

श्वंग çŏŋg, sleep.

Thus, ज़ाग्  $z\bar{a}g$ , watchfulness. बुंग्  $wu\eta g$ , is, specially, a dog's howl. बुंग  $wu\eta g^a$ , means the lying awake at night owing to some care.

(d) **e** ch (ix. ii. 61).

तक tach, pare.

मन्दर mandach, be ashamed.

Thus, तक् tăch, scratching. The first may also form तक tạch (62).

(e) न <u>ts</u> (ix. ii. 58).

पन pats, trust with a loan.

বৌৰ rōts, be preferred.

শ্বীর crōts, be pure.

Thus, us pătsh, trust (of all kinds), To rotsh, preference.

(f) tsh (ix. ii. 59).

दक् yitsh, wish.

त्रिक् priteh, ask.

Thus, रह  $yi\underline{ts}h$ , wishing. We say प्रिक्रगोरू केर्न्स  $pri\underline{ts}h^a-g\bar{q}r^{\bar{q}}$   $kar^{\bar{q}}-n-as$ , asking, &c., was done by him for him.

(g) ज़ z (ix. ii. 64).

प्रज़ graz, roar.

Thus, মূল graz, a roaring; মূলি কিনু grazi kyutu, for roaring (ix. i. 17).

(h) **z** ! (ix. ii. 65).

चंड tsut, break wind with noise.

æz tshat, winnow.

फुट phut, be broken.

Thus, इंट tshath, winnowing.

(i) **z** th (ix. ii. 66).

ষত tyăth, be bitter. The abstract noun, যত tyăth, means necessity, necessariness.

Thus, नमादिक दाउ tamāki tyăth, the want of tobacco.

(j) **c** d (ix. ii. 67, 68).

मांड mād, mix.

क्रैंड tshād, search.

The latter makes  $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$  is  $\underline{ts}h\tilde{a}d$ , or  $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$  is  $\underline{ts}h\tilde{a}d^{\bar{u}}$ . [The verb  $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$  is  $\underline{ts}\tilde{a}d$ , search, without the nasal, always makes  $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$  is  $\underline{ts}\tilde{a}d^{\bar{u}}$ ].

(k) a t (ix. ii. 69).

न्यत nyat, shear.

स्तव latav, kick.

Thus, न्यथ् myăth, a shearing; ज्य lăth, a kick.

(l) \(\xi\) d (ix. ii. 70).

पद pad, break wind.

षद pyad, be cognisant of.

घंद pŏnd, sneeze.

Thus, tiz pŏnd, a sneeze.

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(m) = n (ix. ii. 71).

चामन  $\bar{a}man$ , change for the bad. ज्ञान  $z\bar{a}n$ , know.

Thus, चामन् āman, a change for bad.

 $(n) \ \mathbf{v} \ p \ (ix. ii. 73).$ 

न्नाप tsāp, gnaw.

Thus, च्राफ् tsāph, a gnawing (Cf. No. 30g.).

(o) \( \pi \) ph (ix, ii. 74).

वुफ wuph, fly.

Thus, बुफ् wuph a flying.

(p)  $\triangleleft b$  (ix. ii. 76).

रंब ramb, be beautiful.

ग्रव  $c\bar{u}b$ , be beautiful.

Thus, tq ramb, beauty.

(q) य y (ix. ii. 77).

प्रय pray, be pleased with.

Thus, प्रय pray, love.

(r) Tr (ix. ii. 78).

चावर āwar, cover.

डंब्र dakhar, depend upon.

तूर tūr, be cold.

घाँघर thāthar, be quick.

दोर dor, run.

सूर mūr, husk.

खार lār, touch.

सखर sakhar, set forth.

चार्  $l\bar{a}r$ , means absconding. The verb दूंब्ह्र  $d\bar{u}n\underline{t}\underline{s}h^a r$ , separate, forms दूब्ह्  $d\bar{u}n\underline{t}\underline{s}h$ , separating (ix. ii. 60). The verb, बंड्र  $wad^a r$ , bury makes वह wad (ix. ii. 67).

J. i. 28

(s) = l (ix. ii. 80).

गाँगल  $g\tilde{a}gal$ ,  $gr\tilde{a}gal$ , be disturbed in one's work.

टाज tāl, go away with indifference.

तंबल tambal, change one's mind.

म्बक्त mŏkal, be released.

व्यल्ख wŏlal, adorn.

शहल çahal, be cold.

Thus म्वकल् mŏkal, release.

(t)  $\neq w$ , (ix. ii. 81).

दव dav, run.

Thus, द्व dav, running.

32. दूश iç (ix. ii. 33). This is used optionally to form feminine abstract nouns or infinitives, in the case of the following verbs.

चक tsök, be angry; तप tap, become hot; इंग lang, be lame.

Thus, चित्रम tsökiç, anger.

The √ मिल्लव milav, unite, irregularly forms मिल्लिमण् milamiç (ix. ii. 34).

- 33. The ak (nom. sg. The akh) (fem.), used to form a feminine abstract noun in the case of the verb the  $p\bar{o}th$ , be fat; e.g., the  $p\bar{o}thakh$ , fatness (ix. ii. 45).
- 34. चत् at (nom. sg. चय् ath) (fem.), used to form feminine abstract nouns in the case of the following verbs (ix. ii. 44).

चर्ज़ arz, earn; बाव  $b\bar{a}v$ , declare one's intentions; व्यक्त  $w\check{o}paz$ , become; अप crap, decay; स्वद syad, succeed; गर gar, make; वट wat, twist; प्रस्त cahal, be cold; ह्यक hyak, be able.

Thus, खर्ज़त् arzat; nom. sg. खर्ज़िय् arzath, earning.

35. अय ay (fem.), used to form feminine abstract nouns in the case of the following verbs (ix. ii. 46).

बखन wakhan, tell; खार  $kh\bar{a}r$ , ascend; ज़ाग  $z\bar{a}g$ , be watchful; बास  $w\bar{a}l$ , take down; नज़  $na\underline{t}s$ , dance; इस  $h\breve{o}kh$ , be dry; सामन  $\bar{a}man$ , change for the bad.

Thus, वस्तव्य wakhanay, telling. The verb मंग mang, ask, forms माँगय् māgay, asking (ix. ii. 47).

The verb बाग्र  $b\bar{a}g^ar$ , divide, forms बाग्य  $b\bar{a}gay$ , division, or बाग्नय  $b\bar{a}ganay$  (ix. ii. 48, 54).

The verb ज़ेन zēn, conquer, forms ज़िय् ziy, victory (ix. ii. 49).

From the verb साव sāv, sleep, comes the derivative, **उद्मावय** udasāvay, waking, lying awake (ix. ii. 50).

The simple word सावय sāvay, means 'happiness' (ix. ii. 51).

From the verb आमन  $\bar{a}man$ , change for the worse, already mentioned, we also have दामनय  $h\bar{a}manay$ , a false charge (ix. ii. 52).

From the verb ভাম  $l\bar{a}g$ , cultivate, we have ভামৰ্থ  $l\bar{a}ganay$ , cultivation (ix. ii. 53).

From the verb चाद sād, accomplish, we have चादनय् sādanay, a chief cause (ix. ii. 55).

36. च्यां awañ (fem.) (with unmodified vowel). This is added to a verb to signify wages (ix. ii. 82, 83, 84). Thus,—

करवज़ karawañ, (fem.), the wages of doing; परवज़ parawañ, the wages of reading; जोनवज़ lōnawañ, the wages of reaping; रोज़वज़् rōzawañ, the wages of remaining.

If the root ends in a vowel the suffix is any wawan. Thus,—

(বি di) বিবৰজ diwawañ, the wages of giving; নিবৰজ niwawañ, the wages of taking; আবৰজ khyawawañ, the wages of eating; আবৰজ্ cyawawañ, the wages of drinking.

37. चन्हार् anhār, used to signify fitness (ix. ii. 91). Thus,— करन्हार् karanhār, fit to be done.

गंडन्हार् gaṇḍanhār, fit to be bound.

If the verb ends in a vowel, the suffix becomes water anahar. Thus,—

खनदार् khyanahār, fit to be eaten.

चनदार् cyanahār, fit to be drunk.

हानदार् hyanahār, fit to be placed.

But as usual,—

নিৰহা ninahār, fit to be taken; হৈনহা dinahār, fit to be given; খিনহা yinahār, fit to come.

The verb इंग lag makes इंगडार् lagahār, which simply means 'worthy.'

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## On Secondary Suffixes in Kāçmīrī.—By G. A. GRIERSON, C.I.E. [Read August, 1898.]

The following account of Secondary Suffixes in Kāçmīrī is based on the fourth part of Īçvara-kaula's Kaçmīra-çabdāmṛta. Some of the so-called suffixes are evidently merely nouns in composition, but I have thought it best to retain them.

The following suffixes express Relationship.

1. पूत्  $p\bar{u}t^n$  (iv. 1). This Suffix (the Skr. पोत:  $p\bar{v}tah$ ) added to a noun in the form of the instrumental singular case (the q n of the first declension being dropped), signifies son, e.g.,—

दर् dar, (instr. दरन् daran) a certain caste, दर-पून्  $dar^a$ - $p\bar{u}t^u$ , the son of a man of that caste.

कौल् kaul, a certain caste, कौल-पूत्  $kaul^a$ - $p\bar{u}t^u$ , the son of a man of that caste.

त्युक्  $tyuk^u$  (instr. तिक्  $tik^i$ ), a certain caste, तिकि-पून्  $tik^i$ - $p\bar{u}t^u$ , the son of a man of that caste.

काव्  $k\bar{a}v$ , a crow, काव-पूत्  $k\bar{a}v^a$ - $p\bar{u}t^u$ , a young crow.

कर् kat, a ram, कट-पूत्  $kat^a$ - $p\bar{u}t^u$ , a young ram.

Apparently irregular are,—

म्यां-पूत् myā-pūtu, a young ram; क्षकर्-पूत् kŏkar-pūtu a chicken; कोतर्-पूत्, kōtar-pūtu a young pigeon; and पिकन्-पूत् pachin-pūtu, a young bird.

This Suffix can only be used with generic terms, such as the above. It cannot be used with proper names (iv. 2).

NOTE.—The word  $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{12}\sqrt{12}$  ts  $\bar{u}r^a$ - $p\bar{u}t^{\bar{u}}$ , either means the son of a thief ( $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{12}\sqrt{12}$ ), or may be applied to children as a term of endearment (iv. 3).

<sup>1</sup> References here and elsewhere to the  $Kaçm\bar{\imath}ra$ -çab $d\bar{a}mrta$ .

When the Suffix is added to the word मिञ् $mi\tilde{n}$ , a kiss, मिञ्-पूत् $mi\tilde{n}\tilde{e}$ - $p\bar{u}t^u$ , or म्वञ्-पूत्  $m\tilde{o}\tilde{n}\tilde{e}$ - $p\bar{u}t^u$ , means simply a kiss (iv. 4).

2. कह käth. This word also means son, but is rarely used, except in abuse, or anger (iv. 5), e.g.,—

चूर-कट्  $ts\bar{u}r^a$ - $k\breve{a}th$ , son of a thief. गान-कट्  $g\bar{a}n^a$ - $k\breve{a}th$ , son of a pimp. पोग-कट्  $p\bar{o}g^a$ - $k\breve{a}th$ , son of destruction. वाज़-कड  $w\bar{a}z^a$ - $k\breve{a}th$ , son of a cook. रास-कट्  $r\bar{a}s^a$ - $k\breve{a}th$ , son of adultery. का-कट्  $k\breve{o}$ - $k\breve{a}th$ , (कुपुनः) a bad son.

We also, however, find ख-कट्  $s\check{o}-k\check{a}th$ , a good son (सुपुनः) and खख-कट्  $s\check{o}kh^a-k\check{a}th$ , a son of happiness (सुखपुनः).

3. a katu. This Suffix, on the contrary is used as a term of praise, with words signifying castes or professions (iv. 6), e.g.,—

बट-कंटु bața-kațu, a real son of a brāhman (i.e., a good brāhman).

So दर-कंट्र  $dar^a$ - $kat^u$ , कौल-कंट्र  $kaul^a$ - $kat^u$ .

हान-केंट्र chāna-kaṭu, a real son of a carpenter, a good carpenter.

Apparently irregular in not having a final a for the first member, are words like,—

खन्र-कंट्र sŏnar-kaṭu, a real son of a gold-smith, a good gold-smith.

मन्र-कंट्र manar-kaṭu, a real son of a shell-worker, a good shell-worker, cf. No. 38.

We find also (from मूँष् műs, a buffalo, ante, p. 63), में प कंट्र maĩṣa-kaṭu, a buffalo-calf.

4. तुर्  $tur^u$ , fem. त्र्  $t^ar$ . This Suffix is associated with the relationship of first-cousin (iv. 8, 9, 10). Thus,—

धफतुर् बोय्  $p\breve{o}phatur^u$   $b\bar{o}y^u$ , the son of a paternal aunt (lit., brother by a paternal aunt).

मामतुष् बोयु  $m\bar{a}satur^u$   $b\bar{o}y^u$ , the son of a maternal aunt.

मामतुष् बोय  $m\bar{a}matur^u$   $b\bar{o}y^u$ , the son of a maternal uncle.

भ्रफत्र् व्यञ् pophatar bene, the daughter of a paternal aunt.

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मासत्र् व्यञ् māsatar bēñē, the daughter of a maternal aunt.

मामत्र् व्यञ् māmatar bĕñĕ, the daughter of a maternal uncle.

Irregular is पितुर् बोध pitur<sup>u</sup> bōy<sup>u</sup> (fem. पित्र् व्यञ् pit<sup>a</sup>r bĕñĕ), the son (daughter) of a paternal uncle.

So also we have घफत्र् बोधि कार्कज़ pŏphatar bāyi kākañ, the wife of the son of a paternal aunt.

Similarly for the other wives, मासत्र् बायि कार्क  $m\bar{a}sat^ar$   $b\bar{a}y^i$   $k\bar{a}ka\tilde{n}$ ; मासत्र् बायि कार्क  $m\bar{a}mat^ar$   $b\bar{a}y^i$   $k\bar{a}ka\tilde{n}$ , and पित्र् बायि कार्क  $pit^ar$   $b\bar{a}y^i$   $k\bar{a}ka\tilde{n}$ .

5. ष्र् thar, fem. ज za indicates, with a change in the termination of the root-word, the relationship of nephew (iv. 11, 12, 13). Thus,—

बावय्र्  $b\bar{a}bath^ar$ , brother's son (बोयु  $b\bar{o}y^a$ , a brother).

बावज़ bāwaza, brother's daughter.

द्यनघर byanathar, sister's son (खज़ bĕñĕ a sister).

बान्ज byanaza, sister's daughter.

द्यारथ्र्  $dy\bar{a}rath^ar$ , son of a husband's brother, (दियु  $dryuy^u$ , a husband's brother).

द्यार्ज dyāraza, the daughter of a husband's brother.

The following Suffixes form adjectives of possession.

6. This Suffix is restricted to natural possessions, i.e., when a thing or quality is spoken of as not only accompanying an object, but as actually forming part of it (iv. 15-19), cf. No. 9. When added to verbal nouns, they must be in the feminine form, see p. 210.

FROM.

WE HAVE.

दोह्  $d\bar{a}r^{\bar{u}}$ , a beard.

दार्थल् dāryal, fem. दार्थल् dāryal, bearded.

गाँक götsh, a mous-

गाँक्स götshal,

moustached.

डख dăkh, a hair-curl.

डखल dakhal,

curly-headed.

बब bab, bosom.

tache.

बबल् babal,

bosomed.

कोक kōch, belly.

कोक्ल kōchal,

bellied.

দ্বান্ধ hyang, a horn.	चङ्काल् hyangal,	horned.
दूँ क् thakh, blow of a horn.	रूँकल् thữkal,	striking with the horn.
ङ्गल् thŏl, blow of a	ङ्गलल् ṭhŏlal,	striking with the
horn.		horn.
चुफ् tsăph, a bite.	च्नपल् tsapal,	biting.
फर् phaç, brightness, cleanness.	फश्ल् phaçal,	well-dressed.
म्यञ् $g \c n$ , a wrinkle.	ग्यञ्च् gĕñal,	wrinkled.
स्रम् syas, a wart.	स्त्रमञ् syasal,	warted.
मंद् pŏnd, a sneeze.	घंदल् pŏndal,	one who sneezes.
मध्यच machĕţĕca, moles.	मध्यचन् machĕţĕcal,	covered with moles.
न्नास् tsās, a cough.	न्नामल् tsāsal,	one who has a cough.
ষ্ঠ <u>t</u> sữṭ, crepitus ventris.	चूँ टल् tsữțal,	one who breaks wind.
C 1 1		

So also we have,-

पाक्  $h\bar{a}\underline{t}\underline{s}h$ , an accusa- पान्नस्  $h\bar{a}\underline{t}\underline{s}al$ , tion (fem.).

one who brings an accusation (not an accused person).

च्य्व zyav, a tongue. च्य्वख् zyaval, a calumniator. The word does not mean possessing a tongue, which is च्य्विसंस् zĕvisasta, or च्य्विशेस् zĕviwōla, (No. 9).

When this suffix is added to the words राष्ट्र  $b\check{e}\tilde{n}\check{e}$ , a sister, and कूर्  $k\bar{u}r^{\bar{u}}$ , a daughter, the compound implies incestuous sexual connexion, thus, राष्ट्र  $b\check{e}\tilde{n}\check{e}l$ , कोर्येस्  $k\bar{o}ryal$ . To convey the idea of possessing a sister or a daughter we must say राष्ट्र  $b\check{e}\tilde{n}\check{e}w\bar{o}l^a$ , कोर्येसेस्  $k\bar{o}r\check{e}w\bar{o}l^a$ , (No. 9).

The word दोह्  $d\bar{a}r^{\bar{u}}$ , a beard, optionally takes the suffix याज  $y\bar{a}l$  thus दार्थन्  $d\bar{a}ryal$ , or दोरियान्  $d\bar{a}r^iy\bar{a}l$ , bearded (iv. 19).

The word यह yad, a belly, becomes यह yadal, having a large belly, pot-bellied (iv. 30). On the other hand यह ए yadal, means 'gluttonous' (iv. 31). So from इर har, a quarrel, we have इर्ज haral,

quarrelsome (iv. 32), and from जत् jat, hair, जचल jatsal, very hairy (iv. 33).

खद्र lad, fem. खद्र lad. This suffix is sometimes used instead of चाल al, but usually in a bad sense (iv. 20, 21). Thus,—

फक् phak, a stink. पाकलद phakalad fem. पाकलद phakalad stinking.

क्रुक tshok, slyness.

ष्ट्रकल्द <u>ts</u>hŏkalad,

sly.

 $\mathbf{g}$ a  $ch\check{o}k$ , a sore.

क्रुकाल्द chŏkalad,

full of sores.

बक bak, a cry.

बकलद् bakalad,

prating.

दुख् dŏkh, pain. दुखल्दु dŏkhalad,

pained.

द्राम् drāg, a famine.

द्रागलद् drāgalad,

afflicted with

famine.

This termination cannot be substituted for अल al in every case. For instance we cannot say गाँक्लद् gotshalad, उखलद् dakhalad, or बबल्द babalad. But with some words both अल al and लुद lad can be Thus besides ফার্ল gĕñal, we can have ফার্লাই gĕñalad, wrinkled; besides स्थमल syasal, स्थमलद् syasalad, warted; and besides चामल tsāsal, রাধিতার tsāsilad (sic). When the word দাম phaç means eccentricity, it takes the termination जुदू thus फण्जदू phaçalad, mad, eccentric. When it means brightness, it takes the termination ve thus फश्ल phaçal.

योर्  $y\bar{o}r^u$ , fem. योर्  $y\bar{a}r^{\bar{u}}$ . This suffix occurs in the following It is added as usual to the instrumental in the first two cases. In the last it is irregular (iv. 22, 23):—

पंज pazu, truth.

पंजियोर् paziyōru, fem. पंजियोर् paziyārū,

truthful.

खपंज़् apazu, untruth. छपंज़ियोर् apaziyōru, fem. छपंज़ियोर् apaziyārā,

untruthful.

मेझिमु manzyumu, मेझिमुयोष् manzyumuyoru,

a go between,

a medium.

The last word is really a compound substantive and its fem. is मिद्भिम्यार्थञ् manzim मण्ये yāreñ.

9. बोलु  $war{o}l^a$ , fem. बाज्यञ्  $war{a}jreve{e} ilde{n}$ ; a suffix signifying possession, when the thing possessed accompanies the possessor, but does not actually (Cf. No. 6). form part of it (iv. 24).

As elsewhere, the suffix is added to the instrumental singular. Thus,—

द्यार् dyār, (masc.) wealth. द्यारवोसु dyārawālu fem. द्यारवाच्यञ् dyārawājĕñ,

सह्  $lar^{\bar{u}}$ , (fem.) a house. स्विनेस्  $lariw\bar{o}l^u$ , स्विन्यञ्  $lariw\bar{a}j\check{e}\tilde{n}$ ,

possessing a house.

श्राय्  $\zeta \bar{a}y$ , (fem.) a place. शायिवोन्तु  $\zeta \bar{a}yiw\bar{o}l^u$ , शायिवान्यञ्  $\zeta \bar{a}yiw\bar{a}j\check{e}\tilde{n}$ , possessing a place.

क्रू  $k\bar{u}r^{\bar{u}}$ , a daughter.

कोरिवोल्  $k\bar{o}riw\bar{o}l^u$ , कोरिवाच्यञ्  $k\bar{o}riw\bar{a}j\check{e}\tilde{n}$ , possessing a daughter.

न्यचिवृ nĕ $cyuv^u$ , a son. न्यचिविवोन्त् nĕ $civ^iwar{o}l^u$ , न्यचिविवान्यञ् nĕ $civ^iwar{a}$ jën, possessing a son.

But,—

गुपन् gupun, a quadruped. गुपन्वोल gupanwolu, possessing herds.  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l}$ गर्वोसु  $garw\bar{o}l^u$ , the master of a house. गर्वोसु  $garaw\bar{o}l^u$ , possessing a house. गर gara, a house.

पाख्  $gr\bar{a}kh$ , fem. पाकञ्  $graka\tilde{n}$ . This may be used instead of बोल  $w\bar{o}l^u$  in the same sense (iv. 24). Thus,—

सह laru, a house, सिपास् larigrākh, fem. सिपाकझ् larigrākañ, possessing a house, and so on.

11. इत् hatu, fem. इन् hatsu. This suffix denotes inconvenience experienced by the mind or feeling, but not by the corporeal body The usual rule is followed in adding the suffix.

मंद्र nyandar (fem.), sleep, मंद्रिस्तु nyandarihatu, fem. मंद्रिस् nyandarihats, afflicted with sleep.

चेष trēs (masc.) thirst.

चेषदंतु trēṣahatu, thirsty.

बुक् bŏcha, hunger.

म्बर्डन् böchahatu, hungry.

क्र्यू krūd, anger.

क्रूट्र क्रियंdahatu, angry.

गुम guma, sweat.

गुमद्दंतु gumahatu, sweaty.

नाफ् tāph, sunshine. तूर् tūr, cold.

चार ār, pity.

नापहत tāpahatu, feeling the sunshine. तूरिहेत् tūrihatu, feeling cold.

In the two following the adjectives formed do not necessarily refer to mind or feeling,-

लव  $law^a$ , dew.

ताव् tāw, warmth.

स्वरंतु lawahatu, dewy. तावरंतु tāwahatu, warm.

E.g., नावरंत्र बुनराय् tāwahats butarāth, warm ground.

12. यतु  $vyat^n$ , fem. यसू  $vya\underline{ts}^{\bar{u}}$ . This suffix is added in the case of the words संदक्ष mandacha, shame; सोद moda, respect; सान māna, honour, in the same meaning as बोचु wolu (iv. 26). Thus,—

मंदक्यंतु mandachavyatu, fem. मंदक्यंत् mandachavyatsü, ashamed. मोदयंतु modavyatu, fem. मोदयंतु modavyatsü, respected. मानयंतु mānavyatu, fem. मानयंतु mānavyatsü, honoured.

So also,—

बर्सार्थतु barsāvyatu, fem. बर्सार्थन् barsāvyats u, wealthy.

13. धान् ān, fem. धान् ān, added to the words दंदु dand, a tooth, and नस् nast, a nose, in a bad sense (iv. 28).

Thus, दंदान dandān, fem. दंदान dandān, having an ugly tooth. नसान nastān, having an ugly nose.

meaning (iv. 29).

नेसु  $nast^u$ , fem. नेस  $nast^{\bar{u}}$ . दह  $dand^u$ , fem. दह  $dand^{\bar{u}}$ .

15. জৰ্  $\bar{u}r^u$ , fem. জৰ্  $\bar{u}r^{\bar{u}}$ , a variant of the preceding (iv. 29).

नसूर्  $nastar{u}r^u$ , fem. नसूर्  $nastar{u}r^{ar{u}}$ . दंदूर् dandūru, fem. दंदूर् dandūrā.

16. चह at, fem. चह at, added to वैंस् wais, age, gives वैंसट waisat, Added to to ras, malice, we have tuz rasat, meaning 'very old.' malicious (iv. 34, 35).

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17. इट it, fem इट it, is used as follows (iv. 36-38).

From sife achi, the eye.

चकीर achīt, fem. चकीर achīt, having the evil eye.

रूप् rūp, beauty.

रूपिट् rūpit, very beautiful.

सूब् lūb, desire.

सूबिट् lūbit, covetous.

च्यृव् zyav, tongue.

ञ्चिह् zĕvit, a calumniator.

18. जह  $\bar{u}th$ , fem. जह  $\bar{u}th$ , as in खख  $ly\ddot{a}kh$  (fem.) abuse, खकल् lyakal, or खकलू  $lyakal\bar{u}th$ , abusive (iv. 39).

The following suffixes form Abstract Nouns.

19. ar, (masc.) added to adjectives (iv. 41). This termination is added in the usual way to the form of the case of the agent, i becoming y. Thus,—

बिय byuyu, stale.

चंह tsaru, much.

फड़र phahuru, hard.

नव navu, new.

प्पृ papu, ripe.

फंफ phaphu, stammering.

ग्वंब  $g o b^u$ , heavy.

चोमु ōmu, unripe.

ग्रह्म gaçu, silent.

च्रोषु tsōṣu, acrid.

फरिश् phariç<sup>®</sup>, hard (fem).

वियार् biyyar, staleness.

चर्यर् tsaryar, excess.

फर्चर् phaharyar, hardness.

नयर् navyar, newness.

पण्र papyar, ripeness.

पप्पर् phaphyar, stammeringness.

खबर् göbyar, heaviness.

चाम्यर् āmyar, unripeness.

गथर् gaçyar, silence.

चाष्यर् tsāsyar, acridity.

र्फार्शियर् pharicyar, hardness.

The last adjective is only used in the feminine.

The main word is also subject to the following changes,—

(a) If the adjective is of three or more syllables,  $\forall ar$  becomes  $\bar{a}r$  (iv. 42). Thus,—

ब्ज़ुल् wŏzulu, red.

**इ**सर

व्यज्ञचार् wŏzajyār, redness (see i. below).

म्बकुल  $m \ddot{o} k u l^u$ , free.

म्बकच्यार् mŏkajyār, free.

(b) This rule is, however, not universal (iv. 44). Thus,—

च्यपंज़् apazu, untruthful.

क्रच्नु krhanu, black.

काच् kātsura, tawny.

काबुर kāwuru, dark-blue.

कपुन kṛpunu, miserly.

कायुर् kāyuru, pinewood.

खोबुर् khōwur<sup>u</sup>, left (not right).

म्यासोम् gĕçyōmu, light black.

चतुर् <u>ts</u>atur<sup>u</sup>, skilful. विसंमु wisam<sup>u</sup>, uneven. ्र अपज़र् apazar, untruthfulness (see h. below).

ष्ठा  $krha\tilde{n}ar$ , blackness (see h. below).

काम्चर् kātsaryar, tawniness.

कावर्थर् kāwaryar, dark-blueness.

क्षपञ्जर्  $krpa\tilde{n}ar$  miserliness (see h.

कायधेर् kāyaryar, the nature of pinewood.

खोवर्थर् khōwaryar, leftness.

यथायर् gĕçyāmyar, light blackness.

न्नत्थेर् tsataryar, skilfulness.

विसम्बर् wisamyar, unevenness.

- (c) The word হাই tōth<sup>u</sup>, dear, beloved, forms হাইলাই tāthañār or হাইন্ tāchyar, belovedness (iv. 43).
- (d) When the word इस् haç, a mother-in-law, takes अर् ar, the word इस् haçar is only used in low abuse. The right word for the condition of a mother-in-law is इस्तोन् haçatōn<sup>u</sup> (No. 27) (iv. 45).
  - (e) The suffix is optional in the case of the following (iv. 46).

बाबु  $k \ddot{o} b^u$ , hunchbacked.

कंदु  $k \ddot{\phi} b^u$ , or क्रब्यर्  $k \ddot{\phi} b y ar$ , hunch-backedness.

गेम gạçu, silent.

गम् gaçu or गम्बर् gaçyar, silence.

(f) When the adjective ends in u- $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$  preceded by  $\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{b}$ ,  $\bar{b}$ , or  $\bar{b}$ , these letters become  $\bar{b}$ ,  $\bar{b}$ , and  $\bar{b}$ , respectively (iv. 47). Thus,—

লিক  $nyuk^u$ , little. তক  $tak^u$ , sharp. সভ্ত  $h\check{o}kh^u$ , dry. निचर् nicyar, littleness.

टचर् tacyar, sharpness.

अधर् höchyar, dryness.

निष् $tryukh^u$ , clever. हुँग  $dr\check{\varrho}g^u$ , dear. सुग् $sr\check{\varrho}g^u$ , cheap.

विधर् trichyar, cleverness.

द्रचर् drŏjyar, dearness.

सुच्यर् srŏjyar, cheapness.

Exceptions are (iv. 48), vide ante, pp. 32, 182,—

ৰকু <u>ts</u>ŏk<sup>u</sup>, sour.

through the nose.

चकार् tsökyar, sourness.

बूंखर् khãkhyar, nasality of voice.

मबंद mŏtu, fat. गंद gạtu, dark. द्रांद drōthu, hard. मूँद mũthu, lazy. मंद mŏṇḍu, blunt. बंद bạḍu, great. प्रोण prōṇu, old.

म्बचर् mŏcyar, fatness.

गचर् gacyar, darkness.

द्रांचर् drāchyar, hardness.

में चर् maichyar, laziness.

म्बंच्यर् mŏñjyar, bluntness.

बच्चर् bajyar, greatness.

মাজ্য  $pr\bar{a}\tilde{n}ar$ , oldness, (see h, for elision of y).

(h) Under similar circumstances, ন্t becomes লু ts, খ th becomes লু tsh, খ th becomes লু, and ন th becomes লু, after all of which খ th is elided (iv. 50, 51). Thus,—

नंत tatu, hot.

मन् matu, madness.

रत् ratu, good.

वेश wathu, open.

श्रद्ध thadu, high.

मंद्द mandu, sick.

नेन् tanu, thin.

गुमन् gumanu, slightly dirty.

नम् tamanu, black.

तूर्न tūranu, cold.

नच्र् tatsar, heat.

मन्र् matsar, madness.

र्त्र  $r^a \underline{ts} ar$ , health of body (iv. 41).

वक्र् watshar, openness.

यज़र् thazar, height.

मंज़र manzar, sickness.

तज़र् tañar, thinness.

गुमज़ार् gumañār (see a) slight dirtiness.

तमञ्जार् tamañār, blackness.

तूरज़ार् tūrañār, coldness.

चनु anu, blind.

खञ्*añar*, blindness.

clean.

कटमिल्नु kaṭamalyunu, half- कटमिल्नार् kaṭamaliñār, half-cleanness.

From the word पनुनु panunu, own, we get irregularly पानजार् pānanār, selfness.

Similarly y is elided in other cases after modified consonants. Thus, in प्राञ्जर  $pr\bar{u}\tilde{n}ar$  in (g) above, so,—

ছুনু  $\underline{tsh\check{o}ts^u}$ , empty.

বহু  $a\underline{ts}h^u$ , weak.

பূர்  $paz^u$ , true.

ष्ट्रचर् <u>ts</u>hŏ<u>ts</u>ar, emptiness.

चक्र atshar, weakness.

पज़र pazar, truth.

(i) So also, when u- $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$  is preceded by eq l, the eq l becomes ज j (iv. 52). Thus,—

खंसु khalu, open.

खञ्चर khajyar, openness.

वूल  $w\bar{u}l^u$ , fickle.

वोज्यर् wōjyar, fickleness.

कुमुनु kumulu, delicate (see a). कुमन्यार् kumajyār, delicateness.

ब्ब्रुन् wŏzul\*, red.

व्यज्ञचार् wŏzajyār, redness.

ज्ञायुनु 'zāyulu, fine.

ज़ाय्च्यार्  $zar q y^a j yar a r$ , fineness.

पिश्रज् piçulu, soft.

पिम्ञार् piçajyār, softness.

(j) Similarly we have (iv. 53),—

चकुर् trakuru, hard.

चकच्यार् trakajyār or

चकर्यर् trakaryar, hardness (see b).

(k) Similarly  $\xi$  h becomes  $\psi$  c (iv. 54). Thus,—

हिंह hyuhu, like.

िच्यर hiçyar, similarity.

न्नोहु tsohu, acrid.

चायार् <u>ts</u>āçyar, acridity.

(1) Similarly स s optionally becomes इ tsh (iv. 55). Thus,—

कूँस  $k\tilde{u}s^u$ , youngest.

के कर kaītshar or के सर kaīsar, the condition of a youngest son.

20. इंसी imi (fem.). This is optionally used instead of आर् ar, after बंडु badu, great, thus बडीमी badīmī, or बज्यर् bajyar (No. 19, g), greatness (iv. 56).

21.  $v = v \bar{q} r^{\bar{u}}$  (fem.). This is optionally used instead of v = r, in the two following words (iv. 57).

সুরু *çrūṯs¹*, pure.

viz tshyaț<sup>ū</sup>, impure.

श्रृत्तियोह  $cru\underline{t}\underline{s}^{i}y\bar{a}r^{\bar{u}}$  or श्रोत्तर  $cro\underline{t}\underline{s}ar$  (20, h), purity.

छ|्टियाह  $\underline{tshet}^i y \bar{a} r^{\bar{u}}$  or छ। चार्  $\underline{tshecyar}$  (20, g), impurity.

22. ज़् z (fem.). This is added to words ending in योर्  $y\bar{o}r^u$ . Thus from (iv. 58).

मिल् म्योर् manzyum<sup>u</sup>-yōr<sup>u</sup>, a go-between (see No. 8).

पंजियोर् paziyōr, truthful. अपंजियोर् apaziyōra, untruthful. मिझिम्-यार्ज् manzim<sup>u</sup>-yār<sup>a</sup>z (the fem. form of मिझिम् manzyum<sup>u</sup> is used), the office of a gobetween.

पंजियार्ज् paziyāraz, truthfulness. पर्याज्ञ apaziyāraz, untruthfulness.

So (cf. No. 21).

श्रूजियोर्ज़ çrūtsiyārāz, purity, and ध्रांटियोर्ज़ tshĕţiyārāz, impurity.

23. (fem.), used to form abstract nouns from substances, not from adjectives (iv. 59).

Thus, पण्डिय paṇḍith, a paṇḍit, पण्डितिल paṇḍitil, the condition of a paṇḍit.

कान् chān, a carpenter.

क्विन् chānil, the condition of a carpenter.

गोर् gor, a priest.

गूरिल् gūril, the condition of a priest.

This suffix cannot be used with every word. Sometimes No. 24, must be used. We cannot for instance, say, from द्विस् dŏsil, a plasterer, द्विस् dŏsilil, the office of a plasterer. We can only say द्विस्तां क् dŏsilāz (iv. 60).

The word जाँक  $l\tilde{a}tsh$ , a eunuch, is irregular. It forms जाँकिल्  $l\tilde{a}tshil$ , or जूँकिल्  $l\tilde{u}tshil$  (iv. 62).

24.  $q \neq \bar{q}z$ , (fem.), used optionally instead of the proceeding (iv. 59, 60). Thus,—

पारिष्डतां panditāz, the condition of a pandit.

कान ज़ chānāz, the condition of a carpenter.

गोरांज़  $g\bar{o}r\bar{a}z$ , the condition of a priest.

द्वीसलीज़ dŏsilāz, the condition of a plasterer.

इस्राज़् ilāz, (fem.), is a compound of the two preceding which is sometimes used (iv. 61).

मंतु matu, a madman.

मतिल् matil or मृतिल्लाज् matilaz, the condition of a madman. मंतु matu is used to mean 'mad,' (as an adjective), its abstract noun would be सन्नर् matsar (No. 19, h).

ब्रेड brēth, ignorant.

बीदिलां का brīṭhilāz, ignorance.

So गूरिलांज् gurilāz, क्रांनिलांज् chānilāz.

वय way, (fem.), used to mean the wages of any act (ix. ii. 85-87). Thus,—

द्यानवय chānaway (fem.), the wages of a carpenter.

द्विस्वय dŏsilaway (fem.), the wages of a plasterer.

From नाव nāv, a boat, we have नावय nāvay, the hire of a boat.

From बोक्  $b\bar{o}r^u$  or बार्  $b\bar{a}r$ , a burden, we have बांक्वय  $b\bar{a}r^{\bar{u}}vay$ , the wages of a porter.

नोन्  $t\bar{o}n^u$  (masc.). This gives a meaning of relationship. It is added, as usual to the agent form (iv. 63). Thus,—

मोल  $m\bar{o}l^u$ , a father. मांज्  $m\bar{a}j^{\bar{u}}$ , a mother. बोय  $b\bar{o}y^u$ , a brother. पुषर् puthar, a son. इस् haç, mother-in-law.

माजितोन mājitōnu, motherhood. बा्यितोन्  $b\bar{a}y^it\bar{o}n^u$ , brotherhood. पुन्रतोनु putaratōnu, sonhood. इम्तोनु haçatonu, mother-in-lawhood.

मां िस्तोन  $m\bar{a}l^it\bar{o}n^u$ , fatherhood.

पोन  $p\bar{o}n^u$ , used instead of No. 27 when the relationship is not intimate (iv. 63). Thus,—

यम vyas, a comrade. दाय dāy, a nurse. पोज pōj#, low.

यसपोन vyasapönu, comradeship. दायपोन् dāyapōnu, nursehood. पांजिपोन  $p\bar{x}j^ip\bar{o}n^{x}$ , lowness of position (in a household).

ਬਰ ut (masc.), used with the following words (iv. 64).

म्रथर cathar, an enemy. म्ययर् myather, a friend. पितुर् pitur, a father.

क्ष गूड़ण, a saint.

बन्द band, a relation.

श्रुत्र्त çatarut, enemyhood. स्यत्रत् myatarut, friendhood.

पितुषत् piturut, fatherhood.

ऋषात् rsyut, sainthood.

बन्द्रत् bandut, relationship.

चन un (masc.), used with the following word (iv. 65).

मैथ maith, a corpse.

मेतुन् maitun, the condition of a corpse.

ਤਚ us (masc.), used with the following words (iv. 66, 67).

म्बद्ध mŏṇḍ, a widow.

म्बण्डम mondus, widowhood.

p. 34).

द्वं dobu, a washerman (Cf. द्वम् dŏbus, a washerman's club, but द्विल döbil, the condition of a washerman (No. 23).

32.  $\forall ad^u$  (masc.), used in the following (iv. 68).

खन् sŏn, a co-wife.

खनबंदु  $s\breve{o}nbad^n$ , co-wifehood.

[So also पित्रियंदु  $pit^ar^ibad^u$ , fatherhood; बार्यियंदु  $b\bar{a}y^ibad^u$ ] or बोजिबंद bājibadu, brotherhood, commensality (iv. 69).

The suffix is used with the numerals 100, and above (iv. 70), as follows :—

इय् hăth, a hundred.

सास् sās, a thousand.

सर्वित, a hundred thousand.

इतबद् hatabadu, hundreds.

सामबंदु sāsabada, thousands.

लक्षवंदु lachyabada, hundreds of thousands.

Applied to vegetables, it means a bundle,—

हाल hākh, spinach.

हाकबंदु  $h\bar{a}kabad^u$ , a bundle of spinach.

सुज muj, a radish.

मुजिबंद् mujibadu, a bundle of radishes.

म्बग्ज् gŏgaj, a turnip.

ग्वग्जिबंद्  $gog^a jibad^u$ , a bundle of turnips.

- 33. बढ़ băth (fem.), used in the following, बांजिबढ़ bājibăth, commensality (see No. 32), (iv. 69).
- 34. ভুলু  $ul^u$  fem. ভু  $aj^{\bar{u}}$ , used to form adjectives as follows (iv. 72–87).

गाट  $g\bar{a}t^a$ , wisdom.

गाउँ जु  $g\bar{a}tul^u$ , fem. गाउँ जू  $g\bar{a}t^aj^{\bar{u}}$ , skilful.

काड् kŏṇḍ, a large spring, also a large round earthen vessel.

काष्टुस् kठndu $l^u$ , fem. काष्ट्रस् kठndqju circular.

गाउ gand, a knot.

गण्डल gaṇḍulu, fem. गण्डल gaṇḍ৽jū, in quantities, wholesale.

ज्य gath, current of a river.

ग्तुलु  $g^a tul^u$ , fem. ग्त्जू  $g^a t^a j^{\bar{u}}$ , excessive, very much.

गद् gad, (not used).

गदुन्  $gadul^u$ , fem. गद्न  $gad^{\bar{q}}j^{\bar{u}}$ , very much.

of grain) weight (usually seers.

टडुन्  $tathul^u$ , fem. टड्न्  $tath^aj^{\bar{u}}$ , large enough to hold a  $tath^u$ .

ti dŏga, a fist.

द्दमुस् dŏgulu fem. द्दम्झ dŏgajū, shaped like a fist, lumpish.

मेन pŏtu, a child.

घतुज् pŏtulu, fem. घत्ज् pŏtajū, an image, an idol.

म्बल् mŏl, price.

साद् sād, taste.

कक् kŏtsh, bag.

बूख chŏkh, cleansing.

चढ़ tsăth, cutting.

पथ् păth, trust.

च्य tsŏth, the anus.

राष् rāth, night.

द्वह döh, day.

मून्  $m\bar{u}n$ , wool.

म्बलुलु  $m \ddot{o} lu l^u$ , fem. म्बल्जू  $m \ddot{o} l^{\dot{a}} j^{\bar{u}}$ , costly, high-priced.

मादुल  $s\bar{a}dul^u$ , fem. माद्जू  $s\bar{a}d^aj^{\bar{u}}$ , taste, nice to eat.

कहुन् kötshulu, fem. कङ्जू kötshaju, a porter.

ष्ट्रकुल्  $ch\breve{o}kul^u$ , fem. छूक्ज्  $ch\breve{o}k^aj^{\bar{u}}$ , clear, distinct.

चुरुषु <u>tsaṭul</u>u, fem. चुरुजू <u>tsaṭṇjū</u>, a thief.

पतुल्  $patul^u$ , fem. पत्ज्  $pat^aj^{\bar{u}}$ , a raft (fem. a mat).

चृतुल् <u>ts</u>ŏtul<sup>u</sup>, fem. च्त्ज् <u>ts</u>ŏt<sup>a</sup>j<sup>ū</sup>, a sodomite.

रातुलु ratulu, night-time.

दुङ्क duhulu, day-time.

मृनुस्  $munul^u$ , fem. मृन्स्  $mun^{a}j^{\bar{u}}$ , woollen (with short antepenult).

35. युन्  $yul^u$ , fem. इज्  $ij^{\bar{u}}$ , used to form adjectives as follows (iv. 88-95).

ἐψ tạp<sup>u</sup>, ringlets.

जट jata (pl.), matted hair.

दाइ dāh, burning.

रस् ras flavour.

टणुल् tapyul<sup>u</sup>, fem. टिपज् tapij<sup>ū</sup>, having much hair.

সন্তু  $jatyul^u$ , fem. সতিসু  $jatij^{\bar{u}}$ , having matted hair.

दह्युन्  $dahyul^u$ , fem. दहिन्  $dahij^{\bar{u}}$ , piteous (with short antepenult).

रसुन् rasyul<sup>u</sup>, fem. रिसन् rasij<sup>u</sup>, full of flavour, imparting flavour. E.g., रसुन् कुर ग्यवान् rasyul<sup>u</sup> chuh gyawān, he is singing sweetly.

मङ् mătsh, consolation.

स्यह् srĕh, affection.

भिष् mis, a rag-nail, a piece of loose skin at the nail, a dolly-idler.

स्यख् syăkh, sand.

माज़्  $m\bar{q}j^{\bar{u}}$ , a mother.

मशुज्  $matshyul^u$ , fem. मिन्न्  $matshij^{\bar{u}}$ , consolatory.

चिद्धाल  $srihyul^u$ , fem. चिद्धिज्ञ  $srihij^{\bar{u}}$ , affectionate (with change of antepenult, vowel).

मिछुलु  $misyul^u$ , the same as mis; also a splinter or thorn under the nail.

स्थक्षु sĕkyul<sup>u</sup>, fem. स्थिकज् sĕkij $\bar{u}$ , sandy, e.g., स्थिकज् बुतराथ् sĕkij $\bar{u}$  butarāth, sandy soil; also sandy-tasty, mealy, of fruit.

माज्युन्  $m\bar{a}jyul^u$ , shy, tied to his mother's apron strings.

36. युन्  $yun^u$ , fem. इञ्  $i\tilde{n}$ , occurs as follows (iv. 96).

सल् mal, dirt.

मस्युन्  $malyun^u$ , fem. मसिञ् $mali\tilde{n}$ , dirty.

The termination also implies measure or weight (iv. 109). Thus,—

चख् trăkh, a weight or measure of four and three quarter seers.

सेर् sēr, a seer.

खार् khār, a measure of sixteen trăkhs.

च्चोक्  $\underline{ts} \breve{o} tr \bar{o} k^u$ , a measure of four  $tr \breve{a} khs$ .

पल् pal, four tolahs.

पाँज़ुव् pazuv<sup>u</sup>, half a träkh.

चित्रुन् कड trākyun<sup>u</sup> kăth, a ram weighing a trăkh; च व्युन् नंट्र् trākyun<sup>u</sup> nạt<sup>u</sup>, a jar holding a trăkh.

मीर्युन् षाल् sīryunu thāl, a dish holding a seer.

खाँ पुनु बोक्  $kh\bar{a}ryun^u$   $b\bar{o}r^u$ , a load weighing a  $kh\bar{a}r$ .

च्चांक्युन् <u>ts</u>ŏtrākyun<sup>u</sup>, containing that measure.

पस्युन् palyunu, weighing four tolahs.

দাঁলয়ন্  $p\tilde{a}zaçun^u$ , measuring half a  $tr\ddot{a}kh$  (iv. 110).

It will be observed that all the above are more or less irregular.

The suffix is also used with the words for sixty and seventy (iv. 111).

भेड çēṭh, sixty.

सतथ् satath, seventy.

शीयुनु çīṭhyunu, worth sixty.

सत्युन् satatyunu, worth seventy.

We cannot do this with other numbers. Thus we say दस्न इन्द्र दाँद dahan handu (genitive)  $d\tilde{a}d$ , a bullock worth ten.

It is also used with pronouns (iv. 112). Thus,—

त्युत्  $ty\bar{u}t^u$ , so much.

यूतु  $yy\bar{u}t^u$ , how much.

कूतु  $k\bar{u}t^u$ , how much?

युत  $y\bar{u}t^u$ , this much.

We also have (iv, 113).

विरिद्ध warihy, a year.

नौत्युनु tītyunu, worth so much.

यौत्युन yītyun", worth how much.

कूत्यन kātyunu, worth how much?

ईत्युन yītyun", worth this much.

बोधुन् wārṣyunu, of one year; one year old.

37. चनु  $un^u$ , is used as follows (iv. 97–98).

कूटु  $k^{\bar{u}}t^{u}$ , a beam.

दग् dag, a blow.

कूटुन kūṭunu, a small beam, a stick.

दगुनु dagun<sup>u</sup>, a club, a mace.

38.  $\[ \mathbf{r} \]$ , is used with the following words to signify profession or calling (iv. 99-108).

रंग् rang, colour.

खन् sŏn, gold.

मन् man, a precious stone.

च्रम् tsam, skin.

হাঁহু  $d\tilde{\bar{a}}d$ , a bull.

काँदु  $k\tilde{\bar{a}}d$  (not used).

डास् dās, destruction.

फास् phās, discord.

बंग banga, Indian hemp.

बम् bam, an impediment.

लम lama, delay.

साब् lāb, interest.

रंग्र् rangar, a dyer.

खन्र् sŏnar, a goldsmith.

मन्र manar, a lapidary.

नुम्र् tsamar, a leather worker.

दाँदुर्  $d\tilde{\bar{a}}d^ar$ , a vegetable seller.

काँदुर्  $k\tilde{a}d^ar$ , a baker.

डास्र् dāsar, a destroyer.

फास्र्  $ph\bar{a}s^ar$ , a causer of discord.

बंग्र् bangar, a hemp-smoker.

बस्र् bamar, an impeder.

लम्र् lamar, a delayer.

साब्र् lābar, a money lender.

साल् sāl, invitation.

माल्र्  $s\bar{a}l^ar$ , a member of a bridegroom's party.

लूट् lūṭh, plunder.

सूट्र् lūṭar, a plunderer.

त्रम् bram, delusion.

त्रम्र् bramar, a deluder.

Irregular is,-

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ज्ब्  $l\bar{u}b$ , covetousness.

लूद्र् lūdar, a coveter.

- [Others write these words रंगुर्  $rangur^u$ , खनुर्  $sŏnur^u$ , &c. Thus making the termination उर्  $ur^u$ , not  $\tau$  r].

39. गेर्  $gar^u$ , (masc.), fem. गेर्  $gar^{\bar{u}}$ , used to signify a profession relating to anything sold (ix. ii. 88, 89). Thus,—

सायगेष् lāĕgar<sup>u</sup>, (साय lāĕ is fem. pl.), a seller of parched grain. गंडन्गेष् gaṇḍangar<sup>u</sup>, a book binder.

कंगज़गर् kangaña-(plur.)-garu, a comb-seller.

मंडन्गर् maṇḍangar<sup>u</sup>, a man who kneads cloth in water (to soften it).

This is not used with words which have other forms, like  $\[mathbb{e}\]$   $\[mathbb{e}\]$  in preceding list.

From दाञ्ज dāñĕ, paddy, we have, irregularly, दाँगेष् dagaru, a paddy seller, vide ante, p. 70.

40. युम्  $yum^u$ , fem. इम्  $im^{\bar{u}}$ , used to form ordinals (iv. 114.)

ख्य ăkh, one.

चित्रम् akyum<sup>u</sup>, fem. चित्रम् akim<sup>a</sup>,

दइ dah, ten.

दशुम् dahyum<sup>u</sup>, fem. दहिम् dahim<sup>u</sup>, tenth.

बुद wuh, twenty.

बुह्म wuhyumu, twentieth.

इय hăth, a hundred.

इत्युम् hatyumu, hundredth.

सास् sās, a thousand.

चार्यमु sāsyumu, thousandth.

कंचू  $kats^{\bar{u}}$  (masc.)  $\lambda$ , how many? कचुम्  $katsyum^u$ , fem. किम्

কল  $kats^a$  (fem.) ), (plur.)

 $ka\underline{t}\underline{s}im^{\overline{u}}$ , which out of many?

यौति  $yit^i$  (masc. plur.), how

योत्युम् yītyum<sup>u</sup>, fem. योतिम् yītim<sup>ū</sup>, which out of many.

many.

नौति  $tit^i$ , that many.

नौत्यमु tītyumu, fem. नौतिम् tītimū, that out of many.

ईति yiti, this many.

ईत्युमु yītyuma, fem. ईतिम् yītimā, this out of many.

41.  $\xi^{i}$ , fem.  $\xi^{i}$ , denotes place of origin (iv. 117). Thus,—

मोव्पोर् sovpor, Sopor, name मोव्पूरि नाव् sovpūri nāv, a boat of of a town.

Sopor; fem. सोव्पोरि sōvpōri.

ईरान् yīrān Persia.

ईर नि गुर् yīrāni guru, a Persian horse; fem. ईरानि yīrāni.

चीन् cin, China.

चीनि खोसु cīni khōsu, a China cup; fem. चीनि cīni.

चिन्द्रसान् hindustān, India.

हिन्दुसानि कपुर् hindustāni kapur, Indian cloth; fem. हिन्दुसानि hindustāni.

42.  $\forall v$ , used as follows (iv. 118).

कशीर् kaçīr (fem.), Kash- कांग्रह् कांग् kāçuru köng Kashmīrī saffron.

So कांग्रार् प्रमीन kāçuru paçmīna, Kashmīrī pashmeena; कांग्रिक् काठ kāçirā köth (fem.), aucklandia costus from Kashmīr.

43. ভাৰ  $uk^u$ , fem. ভা $c^{\bar{u}}$ . This is used to signify origin, either in place or time. If जुन  $uk^u$  is preceded by य y, युन  $yuk^u$  becomes  $ic^u$  in the feminine. It is really one of the genitive particles (p. 37) (iv. 119, 120).

कति kati, where?

कत्युक्  $katyuk^u$ , fem. कतिचू  $katic^{\bar{u}}$ , of where?

नित tati, there.

तत्युक tatyuku, fem. ततिचू taticu, of there.

इति yiti, here.

इत्युक् yityuku, fem. इतिचू yiticu, of here.

यति yati, where.

यत्युक् yatyuku, fem. यतिच् yaticu, of where.

ऋति huti, here.

इत्युक् hutyuku, fem. इतिच् huticu, of here.

कर् kar, when.

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गर gara, a house.

राष्ट्र rāth, yesterday.

पर्स parusu, the day before yesterday.

दशुन् dachyun<sup>u</sup>, south. खोवुर् khōwur<sup>u</sup>, north. करक्  $karuk^u$ , fem. करेचू  $karac^{\bar{u}}$ , of what time.

गरक  $garuk^u$ , fem. गर्च  $garac^{\overline{u}}$ , domestic.

रातुक् rātuku, fem. रातंच् rātacū, of yesterday.

पर्सक्  $par^asuk^u$ , fem. पर्संचू  $par^a$ - $sac^{\overline{u}}$ , of the day before yesterday.

दंशिन्युक्  $dach^{i}nyuk^{u}$ , of the south. खोव्युक्  $kh\bar{o}w^{a}ryuk^{u}$ , of the north.

The word ध्रज़् az, to-day, makes ध्रज्युक azyuk, of to-day.

44. युम्  $yum^u$  (or इम्), fem. इम्  $im^{\bar{u}}$ . This termination is added to the post-position पादि  $p\bar{a}r^i$ , beyond (cf. No. 70). When phrases like किम पादि  $kami\ p\bar{a}r^i$  occur, the मि mi of the pronoun is elided when this suffix is added (iv. 120). Thus,—

पांदि  $p\bar{a}r^i$ , beyond.

किमप्रि kamipāri, in what direction.

तिमपोर्रि tamipāri, in that direction.

यिमपिर् yamipārī, in what direction.

इसिपंरि humipāri, beyond that.

द्रिमपोर् yimipāri, in this direction.

चिमिर्गिर amipāri, in that (visible) direction.
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पश्चिम् pāryum<sup>u</sup>, fem. परिम् pārim<sup>ū</sup>, born in the country beyond (the hills). May also be written परिम् and so throughout.

कपार्श्वम kapāryumu, of what direction.

नपार्युम् tapāryumu, of that direction.

यपार्थुम् yapāryumu, of what direction.

ज्ञपर्यिम् hupāryumu, of over there.

द्रपार्युम् yipāryumu, of this direction.

अपार्युम् apāryumu, of that direction.

So also we have,—

ब्राँड broth, in front.

पथ् păth, behind.

ह्यूर् hyūru, above.

णड pyățh, above.

तल tal, below.

ब्बन् bŏn, below.

चन्द्र andar, within.

न्यंबर् nyabar, outside.

मझ manz, in.

ब्रॅंगुम brũthyum<sup>u</sup>, of the front.

पत्युम् patyumu, of the rear.

ही गुँस hīryumu, of above.

ष्यशुम् pĕṭhyum<sup>u</sup>, of above.

नन्तुम् talyumu, of below.

ब्बन्युम् bŏnyumu, of below.

चन्द्र्युम् andaryuma, of within.

न्यब्धुंमु nyabaryumu, of outside.

मङ्युम् manzyum<sup>w</sup>, internal (Cf. Nos. 8 and 22).

45. ஜ்ரு khyal<sup>u</sup>, fem. ஜ்ரு khĕjū, signifies multitude (iv. 121).

गाव्  $g\bar{a}v$ , a cow.

गोव्रह्मल्  $g\bar{o}v^{\bar{u}}khyal^{u}$ , a herd of cows. Vide ante, p. 67.

ग्रह् gura, a horse.

गुरिष्यंन् gurikhyala, a troop of

horse:

गुपन् gupan, cattle.

गुपन्छोल् gupankhyala, a herd of

cattle.

त्यूष् tyūru, a ram.

तीरिख्युल् tīrikhyala, a herd of

rams

ज़नान zanāna, a woman.

ज़नानखंसु zanānakhyalu, a group

of women.

महन्युव् mahanyuvu, a man.

महिन्दिष्यं मु mahanivikhyalu, a crowd of men.

It will be observed that the termination is added to the Nominative Plural.

46. अय् ay, used as follows (iv. 122).

ज्ख् lūkh, people.

लूकय् lūkay, a crowd of people.

47.  $\exists v_i un^u$ , fem.  $\exists v_i n_i$ , the genitive termination. It is used to form adjectives also (iv. 123). Thus,—

पान pāna, self.

पनुन panuna, fem. पनञ् panañ, own.

Note that in this word the long vowel of the base is shortened.

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48. चंदु  $ud^u$ , fem. ज़्  $z^{\bar{u}}$ . This is used as follows (iv. 124).

पर् par, another.

परद् parudu, fem. पर्ज़ parazu, another's.

49.  $\mathbf{v} th^{\mathbf{a}}$ , used to form adverbs of manner (iv. 125), with elision of a preceding  $\mathbf{v} h$  (iv. 131). So also in other cases. Thus,—

तिइ tih, that.

तिथ titha, in that manner.

यिइ yih, who.

ियथ yitha, how.

क्याइ kyāh, what?

काय kyatha, how? (vowel shortened, iv. 129).

इइ yih, this.

इथ yitha, thus.

58 huh, thus.

इय hutha, in that manner.

50.  $\mathbf{v}_{\underline{a}} th^{\underline{u}}, \text{ fem. } \mathbf{v}_{\underline{a}} t\underline{s}h^{\underline{u}}, \text{ forming adjectives of manner (iv. 126).}$ 

तियु  $tyuth^u$ , fem. तिक्  $ti\underline{ts}h^{\bar{u}}$ , of that kind.

ियशु  $yyuth^u$ , fem. यिक्  $yi\underline{ts}h^{\bar{u}}$ , of what kind.

िक्य  $kyuth^u$ , fem. किन्  $ki\underline{t}\underline{s}h^{\bar{u}}$ , of what kind?

दशु  $yuth^u$ , fem. दङ्  $yi\underline{ts}h^{\bar{u}}$ , of this kind.

इयु  $huth^u$ , fem. इड्  $hu\underline{ts}h^{\bar{u}}$ , of that kind.

51. पाँडि pāṭhi or पाँडिन pāṭhin, used pleonastically after adverbs of manner, and similarly after other words (iv. 127, 128, 129). Thus,—

तिथपांडि tithapāthi, in that way.

यिथपाँ डि yithapāṭhi, how.

क्यथपं ्ठि kyathapāṭhi, how?

इथपंडि yithapāthi, thus.

ज्ञथपं दि huthapāṭhi, in that way.

So also तिथपोडिन् tithapāṭhin, &c.

So also we have,—

बिय biya, other.

मोर्य sōruy, all.

चलु halu, crooked.

बियपांडिन् biyapāthin, otherwise.

सारिय्पंढि  $s\bar{a}riyp\bar{a}th^i$ , in every way.

इंजिपां कि halipāthi, crookedly.

In the same way the termination can be added to the genitive of any noun.

E.g., तस्दि पाउँ  $tasand^i$   $path^i$ , like that.

गृदि चेन्दि पोठि guri sandi pāṭhi, like the horse.

So also we have phrases like কাখনা স্বাহি kyatha-tāñ-pāthi, in any manner. নাল tāñ=Skr., ভাঘি api.

52. In  $rayg^a$ , used to form adverbs of manner as follows (iv. 130).

तमिरंग tamiranga, in that manner.

यमिरंग yamiranga, how.

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किमरंग kamiranga, how?

इमिरंग yimiranga, thus.

इसिरंग humiraya, in that manner.

श्रामिरंग amiranga, in that manner.

चितिरंग akiranga, in one manner (from चाल् ăkh, one).

द्वियंग dwayiranga, in two ways (from ज़्ह् zah, two).

यथरंग trěyaranga, in three ways (from विद् trih, three).

सारिरंग sāriranga, in every way (from सोर् sōru, all).

यन्तिरंग yatsiranga, in many ways (from यंनू yatsā, very).

चिडाहरंग siṭhāhiraŋga, in many ways (from चिडाह् siṭhāh, very).

53.  $\xi^i$ , to form adverbs of place from pronominal bases (iv. 132). Thus,—

र्नात tạti, there.

यंति yati, where.

क्ति kati, where?

इति yiti, here.

ऋ्ति huti, there.

च्रित ati, there.

So also we have (iv. 155), formed from words which are not pronominal bases,—

ब्रॉड brōṭh, before.

पथ् păth behind.

बूँडि  $br\tilde{u}th^{i}$ , in front. पंति  $pat^{i}$ , in behind.

खोव्र khōwuru, left.

खोव्रि  $kh\bar{o}w^ar^i$  (p. 53), on the left.

द्खन dachyunu, right.

दिक्नि dachini (p. 54), on the right.

तल् tal, below.

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तिं tali, below.

षड pyăth, above.

ष्ठ pyathi, above.

54. अन an, अनी anī, अनम् anas, अनम् anan, added pleonastically to the adverbs of place mentioned in No. 53 (iv. 133, 135). Thus,—

कत्यन् katyan, कत्यनी katyanī, कत्यनम् katyanas, or कत्यनन् katyanan, where?

तत्यन् tatyan, तत्यनी tatyanī, तत्यनम् tatyanas, or तत्यनन् tatyanan, there.

यत्यम् yatyan, यत्यनी yatyanī, यत्यनम् yatyanas, or यत्यनम् yatyanan, where.

ध्ययन् atyan, ध्रायनी atyanī, ध्रायनम् atyanas, or ध्रायनम् atyanan, there, &c.

55.  $\xi$  i, to form adverbs of motion from (iv. 132). Thus,—

त्तर्त tati, from there, thence.

यति yati, from where, whence.

कति kati, from where? whence?

इति yiti, hence.

इति huti, thence.

त्रित ati, thence.

56. ws pyatha, added pleonastically to the adverbs of motion from, mentioned in No. 55 (iv. 134). Thus,—

तिषठ tatipyatha, thence.

यतिषड yatipyatha, whence.

कतिष्यड katipyatha, whence?

द्रतिषड yitipyatha, hence.

ङ्गतिषड hutipyatha, thence.

This is merely the post-position of the ablative. Cf. Hindūstānī কর্টা से  $kah\tilde{\tilde{a}}$   $s\bar{e}$ .

57. श्रोर् ör used to form adverbs of place as follows (iv. 136).

तोर्  $t\bar{o}r$  there; योर्  $y\bar{o}r$ , where; कोर्  $k\bar{o}r$ , where? योर्  $y\bar{o}r$ , here होर्  $h\bar{o}r$ , there; छोर्  $\bar{o}r$ , there.

[No. 3,

When the suffix  $\bar{u}$  y, even, is added,  $\bar{u}$   $\bar{v}$  becomes  $\bar{u}$ . Thus,— तूर्य tūry, even there; यूर्य yūry, even where; कूर्य kūry, even where? यूर्य yūry, even here; जर्भ ury, even there.

58. तु  $t^u$ , or तुथ् tuth, used to form adverbs of place (iv. 136). Thus,-

नंतु tatu or नतुष् tatuth, there; यंतु yatu or यतुष् yatuth, where; कतु katu or कतुथ् katuth, where? इत् yitu or इतुथ् yituth, here; इत् hutu or जनुष् hututh, there; चनु ata, or चनुष् atuth, there.

With emphatic य् y, these become, नंतुय् tatuy, नतुयूय् tatuth v, even here; यंतुष् yatuy or यतुष्य yatuth y, even where, and so on (p. 88).

59. चोर  $\bar{o}r^a$ , used to make adverbs of motion from (iv. 137). Thus,—

तोर  $t\bar{o}r^a$ , thence; योर  $y\bar{o}r^a$ , whence; कोर  $k\bar{o}r^a$ , whence? योर  $y\bar{o}r^a$ , hence; दोर  $h\bar{o}r^a$ , thence; खोर  $\bar{o}r^a$ , thence.

60. श्रांस ali or श्रांस ali, used to make adverbs of time (iv. 138). Thus,—

त्यिन  $t \, \check{e} \, li$ , or त्येनि  $t \, \check{e} \, l^i$ , then; यानि  $y \, \check{e} \, li$  or यानि  $y \, \check{e} \, l^i$ , when; का कि këli or का कि këli, when?

This termination is not used with other pronouns. The word for 'now' is অর  $w \tilde{o} \tilde{n}$ . 'Even now' is বুরু  $w u \tilde{n}$  (iv. 139). 'When?' is also ৰু kar (iv. 140).

61.  $\xi$  i, or  $\xi$  i, used to form adverbs of time (iv. 141, 143). It is really the case of the agent, sometimes masc., and sometimes (to agree with विज़ि wizi understood) fem.

From—

रातुल rātulu, night time. रात्लि rātali, by night.

We also have रात्वित rātkyutu, with the dative post-position (iv. 142).

द्वन्ति dŏhali, by day. दङ्गलु  $d\check{o}hul^u$ , day time.

न्यचन्नालु nyahaphölu, break of न्यचन्नालि nyahaphöli, at daybreak. dawn.

सुल् sul<sup>ū</sup>, earliness. सुनि suli, early.

यंचूकाल  $yats^{\bar{u}}k\bar{a}l$ , delay. यंचूकां िल  $yats^{\bar{u}}k\bar{a}l^i$ , late. काल  $k\bar{a}l$ , time. कांचि  $k\bar{a}l^i$ , at the (right) time.

We have also को ्जिक्यण् kālikyāth, the day after to-morrow. kyăth is the sign of the Locative. Again नितक जिन्मण्य tatikā likyăth, two days after to-morrow.

विज्  $wiz^{\bar{u}}$ , time, takes this suffix, which is in this case, clearly the agent singular, in the following phrases.

कमिविज़ि kamiwizi, when? तमिविज़ि tamiwizi, then; यमिविज़ि yamiwizi, when; &c.

62.  $\forall s$ , used to form adverbs of time in the following. really the accusative singular (iv. 144).

कोजु  $k \bar{o} j^u$ , the forenoon meal. कांजिस kājis, at the time of the forenoon meal.

िमयुज़ mimyuza, the after- मिमिज़िस् mimizis, at the time of the afternoon meal. noon meal.

चन an, used to form adverbs of time, especially with regard to the divisions of the day (iv. 145).

मन्दिज् mandyuñu, midday.

दुपहर् dupahar, midday.

कालचन kālacan, evening.

बतन्यंग batanyang, the time of the night meal.

बतदब batadab, the time of going to bed after the night meal.

खड्राय् adrāth, midnight.

last watch of the night.

मन्दिञ्न् mandiñan at midday.

दुपहरन् dupaharan, at midday.

कालचनन् kālacanan, at evening.

बतन्यंगन् batanyangan, at the time of the night meal.

बनद्बन् batadaban, at bed time.

अड्रातन् adrātan, at midnight.

पत्युमुपहर् patyumupahar, the पतिम्पहरन् patimpaharan, in the last watch of the night.

We even find this with foreign words, as,—

सुब्ह subah, morning.

सुब्हन subohan, at morn.

शासन çāman, at eve.

भाम çām, evening.

64. च a, used to signify distribution, with the prefix प्रय prăth (iv. 146). Thus,—

द्वह döh, a day.

प्रथ्दह präthdöha, day by day.

(Also दृद  $d\ddot{o}h^a$ , day by day, iv. 147).

पहर् pahar, a watch.

प्रथपहर prăthpahara, at each watch.

विरह्म warihy, a year.

प्रथ्वरिद्ध prăthwarihya, yearly.

प्रथ prăth, also simply governs the accusative.

Thus,—

खख ăkh, one.

বিজ  $wiz^{\bar{u}}$ , time.

महिन्दु mahanyuvu, a man.

ज़नान zanāna, a woman.

प्रथ् खिंकस् prăth akis, one by one.

प्रथ विज़ि prăth wizi, each time.

प्रथ् महनिविस् prăth mahanivis, man by man.

प्रय् ज़नानि prăth zanāni, woman by woman.

When य y, even, is added to the phrase प्रयह्म  $pr \ddot{a}th d \ddot{o}h^a$ , the प्रय्  $pr \ddot{a}th$  is always dropped. Thus, always, दृस्य  $d \ddot{o}hay$ , even day by day (iv. 148). प्रयहस्य  $pr \ddot{a}th d \ddot{o}hay$ , is not used.

65. पश् păth, is also used to signify distribution, as follows (iv. 149).

द्वस्पथ् द्वस dŏhapăth dŏha, day by day.

विश्विपथ् विश्वि warihyapăth warihya, year by year.

ज़निपय् ज़नि zanipăth zani, person by person.

66. उस् us, used as follows (iv. 150, 151, 152).

इइ yih, this.

इडर् yihus, this year.

ਜ਼ੀਂਡ broth, before.

ब्राँड्स् brőthus, next year.

पथ् păth, behind.

परम् parus, last year (with change of t to r).

प्रोक्  $pr\bar{o}r^u$ , belonging to the year before last.

प्रोग्रेस prāryus, in the year before last.

67. किनि kini, used to form adverbs of direction from (iv. 153); added to No. 55. Thus,—

ননিকিনি tatikini, thence; যনিকিনি yatikini, whence; কনিকিনি katikini, whence? হনিকিনি yitikini, hence; ভ্লনিকিনি hutikini, thence.

ब्रॉड broth, before.

ब्रुडिकिन  $br\tilde{u}th^ikin^i$ , from before.

पथ् păth, behind.

प्तिकिनि patikini, from behind.

दशुन dachyunu, right.

दिक्निकिनि dachinikini, from the right.

खोबुर् khōwuru, left.

खोव्रिकि्न  $kh\bar{o}w^{a}r^{i}kin^{i}$ , from the left.

तल tal, below.

नंसिकिनि talikini, from below.

षड pyățh, above.

पाँठिकिनि pěthikini, from above.

68. कनि kani, used to form adverbs of direction from (iv. 153), with No. 59. नोरकिन tōrakani, from there; योरकिन yōrakani, from where; कोरकिन kōrakani, whence? दोरकिन hōrakani or घोरकिन ठिंग्यक्षेतां, thence.

So also we have, signifying cause,—

तमिकनि tamikani or तवकनि tawakani, for that reason.

यसिकान yamikani or यनकान yawakani, for what reason.

किमकिन kamikani or कवकिन kawakani, for what reason?

इमिकनि yimikani or इनकनि yiwakani, for this reason.

इमिकनि humikani (not इनकिन huwakani), for that reason.

श्रमिकनि amikani or श्रवकनि awakani, for that reason.

It is also used with words of time to signify uncertainty (iv. 154). Thus,—

खज़्किन azkani, perhaps to-day; पगाइकिन pagāhkani, perhaps to-morrow; कां जियायकिन kālikyăthkani, (see No. 61), about the day after to-morrow; जैवकिन ūtrakani, about the day before yesterday; दंडम्किन dahumkani, about the tenth (lunar) day; हारकिन hārakani, about aṣāḍha.

69. पत  $pat^a$ , used to form adverbs of time after (iv. 153). Thus,—

तिमपत tamipata, after then.

नवपन tawapata, after then, and so on, as in No. 68.

किमपोर्  $kamip\bar{q}r^i$  or कपोर्  $kap\bar{q}r^i$ , in or from what direction? तिमपोर्  $tamip\bar{q}r^i$ , or तपोर्  $ap\bar{q}r^i$ , in or from that direction.

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यसिपोर्  $yamip\bar{a}r^i$ , or यपोर्  $yap\bar{a}r^i$ , in or from what direction. इसिपोर्  $yimip\bar{a}r^i$  or इपोर्  $yip\bar{a}r^i$ , in or from this direction. इसिपोर्  $humip\bar{a}r^i$  or इपोर्  $hup\bar{a}r^i$ , in or from that direction. धिसपोर्  $amip\bar{a}r^i$  or धपोर्  $ap\bar{a}r^i$ , in or from that direction.

And so on. So also,—

दिक्निपोर्  $dachin^ip\bar{a}r^i$ , from or on the right; खोन्रिपोर्  $kh\bar{o}w^ar^i$ - $p\bar{a}r^i$ , from or on the left; ब्रॅडिपोर्  $br\tilde{u}th^ip\bar{a}r^i$ , in or from the front;
पित्मिपोर्  $patim^ip\bar{a}r^i$ , in or from behind.

From ज़ोर् <u>ts</u>ōr, four, we have च्पारि <u>ts</u>ŏpāri or च्वापारि <u>ts</u>ŏwāpāri, in or from all round, i.e., all four directions.

But चारिपारि tsōripāri, in or from four directions only (iv. 157). As usual these nouns take the case of the agent.

71. बुन् kun, added to adverbs of place to signify direction (iv. 158). Thus (No. 57), तोर्क्जन् torkun, in that direction; योर्क्जन् yorkun, in what direction; कोर्कुन् korkun, in what direction? योर्क्जन् yorkun, in this direction; होर्कुन् horkun, in that direction; होर्कुन् horkun, in that direction.

तूर्यकुन् turykun, even in that direction; यूर्यकुन् yūrykun, even in what direction.

Again (No. 58), नत्कुन् tatukun, in that direction; यत्कुन् yatukun, and so on.

In these last the final  $\frac{1}{2}t^{u}$  of the first element may be changed to th. Thus,—

तथ्कुन् tathkun, in that direction; यथ्कुन् yathkun, in what direction; कथ्कुन् kathkun, in what direction? दथ्कुन् yithkun, in this direction; इथ्कुन् huthkun, in that direction; अथ्कुन् athkun, in that direction. With emphatic य y we get, तथ्कुन् tathykun, even in that direction; यथ्कुन् yathykun, even in what direction, and so on.

Similarly we have,—

गाम् gām, a village.

गाम्कुन् gāmkun, in the direction of the village.

तर gara, a house.

गरकुन् garakun, in the direction of the house.

कल kŏl, (fem.), a river.

बार् wārā, a garden.

ছাব্ hyaru, দ্বাব্ hyuru, or দ্বাব্ hyūru, above.

चन् bŏn, below.

कालिकुन् kölikun, towards the river.

वारिकुन् wārikun, towards the garden.

द्युत् hyar"kun, द्युत्तुन् hyur"kun, or द्यूत्तुन् hyūr"kun, towards above.

व्यन्तुन् bonkun, towards below.

The suffix can also be used as a post-position added to the accusative. Thus,—

मोलु molu, a father.

मांजू  $m\bar{a}j^{\bar{u}}$ , a mother.

मालिम् कुन् mālis kun, towards the father.

माच्य कुन् mājě kun, towards the mother.

So तिम कुन् tamis kun, towards him; यिम कुन् yamis kun, towards whom.

72.  $\forall v^u$ , (fem.  $\forall a \ av^{\bar{u}}$ ), signifies composed of (iv. 159). Thus,—

खन् sŏn, gold.

म्येन्  $m \check{e} \underline{t} s^{\bar{u}}$ , earth.

काठ्  $k\bar{a}th$ , wood.

सन्द sŏnuv<sup>n</sup>, fem. स्वनंद sonav<sup>n</sup>, made of gold.

म्यसुत् mĕtsyuvu, fem. म्यस्यू mĕtsyavu made of earth.

काउँ kāṭhuva, made of wood.

In all the above, the suffix is added to the form of the agent, but a final a is elided.

73. बुच्यू buzy, fem. the same, signifies dependent on (iv. 160). Thus,—

लूख् lūkh, people.

सूत्र वृज्य lūkabuzy, dependent on people; belonging to other people.

खड khŏd, a hollow.

षडनुष् khödabuzy, dependent on a hollow; i.e., buried in the ground.

कल्य kŏlay, a wife.

कालयबुष्य kŏlayabuzy, dependent on a wife; having only one relation,—his wife. 252

74. स्वेक्  $lyak^u$ , fem. संद्  $l\breve{e}c^{\bar{u}}$ , used with षड् ad, half, as follows (iv. 161).

श्राहरू adalyaku, incomplete: e.g.

श्राहर्य कोम्  $adl \check{e} c^{\bar{u}} k \bar{o} m$ , an incomplete action.

चडलांच् लंक् adalĕcū larū, an incomplete house.

रिंग् ring, used as follows (iv. 162) to make diminutives.

खब्र abar, a cloud.

दुइ  $d^ah$ , smoke.

बाब wāw, wind.

चाब्रिंग् abararing, a slight cloud.

दुइरिंग् daharing, a slight cloud of  $\mathbf{smoke}$ .

वाविरंग् wāwaring, a little wind.

76. ज्य lath, (fem.), used to form diminutives of words signifying breath or light (iv. 163). Thus,—

प्राण् prān, life.

शाह् çāh, breath.

गाम् gāç, light.

चेंग् tsõg", a lamp.

प्राण्ड्य prānaleth, a spark of life.

शास्त्य çāhalath, a trace of breath.

गामल्य gāçalath, a very little light.

चाँगिल्थ्  $\underline{ts}$   $\hat{a}g^{i}l^{a}th$ , a little lamp.

The final थ् th becomes त् t in declension. Thus, acc. sg. प्राणल्ति  $pr\bar{a}nal^ati$  (not प्राणल्चू  $pr\bar{a}nal^a\underline{ts}^a$ ).

77. त्र् tar (fem.), used to form diminutives of words meaning cloths (iv. 164).

कपुर, kapur, cotton cloth.

पंदु patu, woollen cloth.

कपर्त्र् kapartar, a piece of cloth.

पंडित्र् patitar.

78. रह chal (fem.), used to form diminutives, especially of clothes (iv. 165).

कपुर् kapur, cotton cloth.

चृट्ट् $\underline{t}$  $\underline{s}$  $\check{o}$  $t^{\bar{u}}$ , a cake. बर्ज  $burj^a$ , a bhurja leaf.

पंटू pạtū, a tablet.

शक्तमाज् krhnamāz, the liver.

कपर्कल् kaparchal, a piece of cotton cloth.

च्यक्ल् tsŏcĕchal, a piece of cake.

बुर्जक्ल burjachal, a piece of bhurja leaf.

पचार क् pacĕchal, a piece of board.

र्द्यक्रमाज्ञ ख्ल् krhnamāz chal, a piece of liver.

79. तिन्तिम् tilim, also forms similar diminutives (iv. 165).

Thus कपर्ति लिम् kapartilim; च्यति लिम् tsŏcĕtilim; बुर्जिति लिम् burjatilim, &c.

It is smaller than a thing formed with No. 78.

80. रेम्प् rēmph (fem.) (vide ante, p. 62), used to form diminutives, and in pity (iv. 166). Thus,—

श्चर çur<sup>u</sup>, a boy.

गुर guru, a horse.

महिन्दु mahanyuvu, a man.

รู้ธ ts นีเทน, an apple.

ग्रारिरेम्फ çurirēmph, a poor little boy.

गुरिरेम्फ् gurirēmph, a poor little horse.

महिन्दिरेम्फ् mahanivirēmph, a poor

चूँडिरेम्फ् ts tithiremph, a little apple.

81. 元東 rētsh (fem.), indicates connexion, including the idea of partition (iv. 167). Thus,—

कपुर् kapur, cotton cloth; कपर्रेंक् kaparrētsh, a piece of cloth.

मानामा स्ट्रेंक् खर् mātāmālrētsh chĕh, there is some slight relationship with his maternal grandfather.

82. इंड zaṇḍ (masc.), added to words signifying vegetables or wood, to signify a little (iv. 168). Thus,—

साल् hākh, spinach.

काउ kāth, wood.

पोष् pōs, a flower.

चुन zyun<sup>u</sup>, firewood.

स्यन syun<sup>u</sup>, vegetables, meat, &c., (eaten with rice). हाकजंड् hākazaṇḍ, a little spinach.

काउज़ंड् kāṭhazaṇḍ, a little wood.

पोषज़ंड pōṣazaṇḍ, a few flowers.

ज़िनिज़ंड् zinizaṇḍ, a little firewood.

सिनिजंड sinizand, a few vegetables (not meat. If meat is included in the idea, zand cannot be used).

मुञ्चज़ंड् mujĕzaṇḍ, a few radishes.

मुजि muj<sup>i</sup>, a radish (Cf. No. 32 ante).

83. कांज़  $k\bar{a}\tilde{n}$  (fem.), used in the same way as No. 82 (iv. 168). Thus,—

सामकोञ्  $h\bar{a}kak\bar{a}\tilde{n}$ , a little spinach; काउकोञ्  $k\bar{a}thak\bar{a}\tilde{n}$ , a little wood; पोषकोञ्  $p\bar{o}$   $sak\bar{a}\tilde{n}$ , a few flowers; so जिनिकोञ्  $zin^ik\bar{a}\tilde{n}$ ; सिनिकोञ्  $sin^ik\bar{a}\tilde{n}$ ; सुज्यकोञ्  $muj\breve{e}k\bar{a}\tilde{n}$ .

84. तुन् tulu (masc.), also used in the same way as No. 82 (iv. 168). Thus; — हाकतुन् hākatulu, a little spinach; काउतुन् kāṭhatulu, a little wood: पोषतुन् pōṣatulu, a few flowers. So नित्नु zinitulu; चिनितुन् sinitulu; सुन्यतुन् mujētulu.

We may also add **धा** ā (iv. 170). Thus **दाकतु**ख्वा hākatulwā, a little spinach.

85. शोप  $th\bar{v}p^u$  (masc.), also used in the same way as No. 82 (iv. 168). Thus,—

हाकथोपु  $har{a}kathar{o}p^u$ ; काठथोपु  $kar{a}thathar{o}p^u$ ; पोषथोपु  $par{o}sathar{o}p^u$ ; जिनियोपु  $sin^ithar{o}p^u$ ; सुन्धथोपु  $muj\Breve{e}thar{o}p^u$ .

86. when phalu, used to signify a little more especially of any kind of grain (iv. 169). Thus,—

दाञ dāñĕ, paddy.

त्वमुल् tŏmul, rice.

कर kara, peas.

म्बंग् mŏŋg, mung.

So also,—

चञ्च <u>ts</u>añ, charcoal.

बंदु bathu, cowdung fuel.

दाँपांजु dāphalu, a little paddy. Vide ante, p. 70.

लम्लफेल tŏmalaphalu, a little rice.

करपंसु karaphalu, a few peas.

म्बंगपांलु möngaphalu, a little mung.

च्ड्रपंच् tsañĕphalu, a little charcoal. बंदिपंच् baṭhiphalu, a little cowdung fuel.

स्यंच्  $m \breve{e} \underline{t} \underline{s}^{\bar{u}}$ , earth. स्थायंपील्  $m \breve{e} \underline{t} \underline{s} \breve{e} p h a l^u$ , a little earth.

पंज् phalu, in the plural, means 'grains,' and is not used as a diminutive. Thus,—

दाँफी्स daphali, grains of paddy; त्यम्सफी्स tomalaphali, grains of rice, &c.

भा ā may be added to फोल phalu. Thus (iv. 170) बनफोल्वा bata-phalwā, a little boiled rice.

87. म्बय् mŏy or म्बया mŏyā, may be used to form diminutives with any of the words mentioned in Nos. 75 to 86, except kinds of wood and grain (Nos. 82 and 86) (iv. 170). Thus;—

च्चित्रवयं  $ab^aramŏy$  or च्चित्रवया  $ab^aramŏy\bar{a}$ , a small cloud; दुस्तवया  $d^ahamŏy\bar{a}$ , slight smoke; वायम्बया  $w\bar{a}wamŏy\bar{a}$ , slight wind; दामम्बया

hākamŏyā, a little spinach (only used of cooked spinach. हाकतुना hākatulā (cf. 84) means both cooked and uncooked); पोषम्बया pōṣamŏyā, a few flowers; च्ञम्बया <u>ts</u>añĕmŏyā, a little charcoal; म्यञ्ग्वया mĕ<u>ts</u>ĕ-mŏyā, a little earth; बतम्बया batamŏyā, a little boiled grain.

88. इन् han or इना hanā, used exactly like No. 87 (iv. 170). Thus,—

चंब्रहन् abarahan or चंब्रहना abarahanā, and so on.

1898.

89. **बल्** bal, is added to any word to indicate the presence of water, or a place for offering sacrifices to minor deities or spirits (iv. 171, 172, 173). Thus we have.

यथबल् vyathabal, wherever the water of the Jhelam flows. E.g., (to a man going to bathe) च्ह कंत् गक्ख? यथबल् tsah katu gatshakh? vyathabal. Where are you going? (Answer) to vyathabal, i.e., to bathe in the Jhelam.

So गंगवल gangabal, name of a well-known bathing place. मां इवल् mārābal, vide ante, p. 67, the water of the river Mār. प्रखरिवल pŏkharibal, a tank (with water in it), name of a well-known tank. क्रीरिवल krīribal, a well; खावरिज़बल āwariñĕbal, a place where a funeral pyre is set up (always on the bank of a river); शिम्शानवल çimçānabal, a burning ghat, (always on the bank of a river).

स्वन् sababal, a place where a wedding dinner party is carried on द्रावस् wurabal, the place where the cooking fires (wur) for a bridegroom's party are used; केंद्रबल् kōdabal, a brick or potter's kiln; राज़बल् rāzabal, a burning ghāṭ (rāz is the superintendent of a burning ghāṭ. Hence, here used for a ghāṭ). पटबल् graṭabal, the site of a Persian wheel. यारबल् yārabal, the place where water (Skr. बारि vāri,) is offered to ancestors; i.e., according to Kāçmīrī custom, a bathing place.

An Account of Travels on the Shores of Lake Yamdo-Croft.—By SARAT CHANDRA DAS, C.I.E., RAI BAHADUR.

[Read February, 1897.]

#### I.—INTRODUCTION.

## 1. EARLY ACCOUNTS OF LAKE PALTI.

In 1730, Orazio Della Penna, a Capuchin missionary, visited this great lake of Tibet and described it as follows:—

"The easternmost place is called Kambala, which is the name of a great mountain, on the slopes of which are many places, and in the plain at the foot to the south is a great lake called Iandro, which is eighteen days' journey round, according to those who have made the circuit, but within are some hilly islands. The same lake has no outlet that I know of, and during a day and a half's march round it, I can vouch that I saw none; while as regards the remaining portion, I have the authority of those who have made its circuit."

This was the famous ring-like lake of Palti, which has appeared in all maps since the days of D'Anville. The peculiar lake of Palti, Piate, or Yam-dok-chu, with its great central island, like a large ring, first appeared on the map prepared by D'Anville, from the survey of the Lamas, under Jesuit instruction, which was published by Du-Halde in 1735. It has been repeated on all subsequent general maps. in his 'Alphabetum Tibetanum' (1762) says, that Palte lake, otherwise called Jang-so or Yam-dso, according to native report is of very great size, so that a man could not journey round it under eighteen days. It is three days' journey from Lhasa. From the middle of the lake rises a continuous chain of hills and islands. On the southern side is a monastery, the abode of a great queen, who is born a second time, called Torcepano. She is honoured as a real goddess by the Indians and Nepalese, who worship her under the name of Bovani. Tibetans believe a certain holy spirit is reborn in its divine essence in this hideous female, just as in the Grand Lama. Whenever she issues

from her house, or from the island, or journeys into the city of Lhasa, a procession precedes her. Mr. Bogle, it will be remembered, made the acquaintance of this female divinity; and Dr. Hamilton cured her of an illness, and visited her constantly:—

"The holidays at the new year drew nigh, and the Lama's relations came from parts of the country to pay their respects to him. His cousin the Teshu-tzay Debo (Tashi-tse Deba), with his wife and family, his nieces, the two annis whom I saw at Teshu-tzay, their mother Chum Kusho; their true brothers, Pyn Kushos; and a half-sister Durjay Paumo (Dorje Phamo), a female Lama, who is abbess of monastery near the Piate Lake, and is animated by the spirit of a holy lady who died many hundred years ago.

\* \* \* \* \* \* \*

"They stayed about two months at Teshu Lumbo, during which time Mr. Hamilton cured Durjay Paumo and Chum Kusho of complaints which they had long been subject to. \* \* \* \* \* \* \*

"The mother went with me into the apartment of Durjay Paumo, who was attired in a Gylong's dress, her arms bare from the shoulders and sitting cross-legged upon a low cushion. She is also the daughter of the Lama's brother, but by a different wife. She is about sevenand-twenty, with small Chinese features, delicate, though not regular, fine eyes and teeth; her complexion fair, but wan and sickly; and an expression of langour and melancholy in her countenance, which I believe, is occasioned by the joyless life that she leads. She wears her hair, a privilege granted to no other vestal I have seen; it is combed back without any ornaments, and falls in tresses upon her shoulders. Her chanea, like the Lama's, is supposed to convey a blessing, and I did not fail to receive it. After making presents and obeisances, I kneeled down, and stretching out her arm, which is equal to "the finest lady in the land," she laid her hand upon my head."

Mr. Manning is the only Englishman who ever saw Lake Palti, and it appears from his narrative that he was not aware that the hills on the opposite shore formed an island. In his diary he wrote:—

"Pursuing our course, and gradually descending, the valley at length opened into a large stony plain, at the end of which stood a considerable town on the margin of an extensive lake, or little sea, as it is called. From the opposite or further margin of the lake rose diminutive mountains in a continued chain, which bounded the whole prospect in front."

On the 1st of January 1866, the Pandit, trained and sent on his travels by Colonel Montgomerie arrived at the banks of the Palti or Yamdok-chu lake at a small post called Piahte-jong.

<sup>1</sup> Markham's Mission of George Bogle, pp. 244 & 245.

He describes the breadth of the lake as varying from two to three miles, and says that it is reported to be very deep. In the centre of the lake there is a hill at the foot of which, are situated a number of villages. The circumference of the lake is about 45 miles; it is crossed in wicker boats covered with leather.

The Pandit rode along the banks from Piahte-jong to the village of Demalung, from which point the lake stretches to the south-east about 20 miles, and then turns west.

This is the Pandit's account of the lake, extracted from his diary. He further reported to Colonel Montgomerie, that he was informed that the lake encircled a large island, which rises into low, rounded hills, 2,000 or 3,000 feet high, and covered with grass to the top. Between the hills and the margin of the lake, several villages and a white monastery, were visible on the island. The Pandit was told that the lake had no outlet, but he says, its waters were perfectly fresh. Mr. Manning on the contrary says, in the text, that the water of the lake is very bad. The Pandit's observations make the lake 13,500 feet above the sea; and the island rises to 16,000 feet above the sea.

## 2. A SHORT ACCOUNT OF TIBET.

Tibet, to speak in the language of Captain Samuel Turner, strikes a traveller, at first sight, as one of the least favoured countries under heaven, and appears to be in a great measure incapable of culture. exhibits only low rocky mountains, without any visible vegetation, or extensive arid plains, both of the most stern and stubborn aspect. climate is cold and bleak in the extreme, from the severe effects of which, the inhabitants are obliged to seek refuge in the sheltered valleys, and hollows, or amidst the warmest aspects of the rocks. Yet perhaps providence, in its impartial distribution of blessings, has bestowed on each country a tolerably equal share. The advantages that one possesses in fertility, and in richness of its forests and its fruits, are amply counterbalanced in the other by its multitudinous flocks and invaluable mines. As one seems to possess the pabulum of vegetable, in the other we find a superabundance of animal life. The variety and quantity of wild-fowl, game, and beasts of prey, flocks, droves and herds, in Tibet are astonishing.

Climate.

Climat

all through the year. Owing to the high altitude and the rudeness of the winds which prevail there, the ground composed as it is of sand, gravel and loose stones, remains hard as if baked in winter. The climate and soil being alike inhospitable, in this part of the country, there is little habitation of men. The country is occupied by herdsmen and shepherds and also by Kyang (wild ass), wild sheep, antelopes, rabbits, wolves and other smaller wild animals. There are snow leopards but no tigers or snakes in Tibet. In the southern parts of Tibet are built cities and castles, and groves of poplar, willows, and stunted trees have been planted. The mountains are destitute of everything except grass and dwarf shrubs.

Products.

little wheat, much barley which is their staple food, and some peas which they bruise and give to their horses and cattle. The latter crop is gathered in September. These harvests as well as that of rape from the seeds of which oil is extracted, yield sixty fold, and in good season eighty fold. The people grow carrot, turnips, radishes, garlic and onions. In the south and south-eastern parts are found, walnut, peach, apricots, wild apples and wild vines which yield a few grapes. There are some few flowers. The poplar, elm, willow and ash abound in most of the parks and groves of Tibet.

There are many gold mines in the provinces of U-Tsang, Chang,

Mines and minerals.

Takpo, Kon-bo and Kham. Silver abounds in
the last province which borders on China.

There are also mines of copper and nickel. Sulphur, vitriol, cinnabar,
cobalt, turquoise, stones, amber and alabaster are abundant. The hills
of Tibet have, from their general appearance strong mark of containing
those fossils, that are inimical to vegetation. Tibet is very poor in iron.

It is not that there are no mines of that useful metal in Tibet. It is
probable that the Tibetans either do not know to work those mines or
that they have no fuel, enough to fuse the metal. In the neighbourhood

<sup>1</sup> During my residence at Tashi-lhunpo, I took observations from the thermometer. I had a Fahrenheit thermometer and a pair of maximum and minimum thermometers. The thermometer during the month of October, was on an average 37° in the morning; at noon 45° and in the evening 40°. During the month of November there was frost in the morning and evening, and the thermometer stood below 30° in the morning and 36° at noon in the shade. A serene, clear sky prevailed, during day and night not a cloud was to be seen in it. The genial warmth of the sun in the transparent atmosphere made the days very delightful. The weather in the months of October and November was clear throughout, cool, and pleasant and the prevailing wind blew from the south and south-west.

of Tashi-lhunpo there is a lead mine. In the province of Chang-thang, about twenty days' march north and north-west of Tashi-lhunpo, there are immense mines of rock-salt which is universally used for all domestic purposes in Tibet, Nepal and Bhutan.

People in Tibet generally suffer from sore eyes, and blindness.

The high winds which prevail nine months in the year, sandy soil, and glare from the reflection of the sun, both from the snow and sand, are evidently causes of the same. Coughs, colds, and rheumatism are frequent in Tibet. Simple fevers occasionally arise from temporary causes. They are easily removed, sometimes without treatment.

Liver diseases with the exception of *Pekan*, which is produced by sedentary habit and continual drinking of tea-soup made with rancid butter, are occasionally met with. Tibet is not exempt from venereal diseases. People suffer from it apart from other causes, more on account of the grossness of their food and for want of cleanliness in their habits of living. Smallpox, when it appears in Tibet strikes the people with too much terror and consternation. They pay less attention to those who are infected, thinking their case hopeless. All communication with the infected is strictly forbidden, even at the risk of their being starved, and the house or village is afterwards erased.

During the time I was laid up at the monastery of Samding I observed that the physicians there used roots and bark of roots for making powders and decoction for administering to their patients. The bark, leaves, berries, and stalks of many shrubs and trees are used in a pulverised state or in decoction. Some are astringent, some are of bitter taste, but the generality is employed to strengthen digestion and to work as tonics.

The Tibetans drink tea prepared in the manner of soup with butter and salt and leave a little in the cup, with Food. which they make a dough with barley meal, For dinner and supper they make the barley and afterwards eat it. meal paste with tea and eat it with boiled mutton, kid or beef of yak They are fond of a gruel made of dried meat, barley when available. meal, radish, or dried curd. The Lamas seldom eat fish or fowl. All classes of people eat raw meat, though occasionally. Only the rich eat rice, bread and meat with sauce, as dainty dishes, called Gya-zē prepared after Chinese fashion. They drink malt beer: ardent spirit is seldom taken. The people generally use dried dung of cows, donkeys, horse and sheep, for fuel. Firewood is used when it is available in some districts. They cook in earthen-ware vessels. The Tibetans are skilful potters.

For clothing purposes they have only cloth of wool, serge, or yarn, blankets, which are seldom more than a foot in breadth, and skins with the hair on. In winter they use robes lined with lambskin. Silk robes lined with fur are used by the rich nobles and official Lamas.

House. with flat or terrace roof. Their houses are spacious and several storeys high. The grand Lama's residence at Lhasa is thirteen storeys and covers the entire summit of a hill. The temples are generally furnished with gilt turrets and domes made after the Chinese style. The houses are generally whitewashed with a kind of lime, their inside is often neatly plastered and contains paintings. The roof rests on wooden beams and is generally made of slate or clay beaten on branches of trees placed on the beams. The floor of their houses are generally kept clean.

Mr. George Bogle and Captain Samuel Turner whom Warren HastCharacter and Social Customs.

ings sent to the court of the Tashi Lama,
brought back with them a very good opinion
regarding the character of the Tibetans. Visiting Tibet full one century after Turner's time, I returned with the same

kind of impression of the character of the people. Humanity, and an unartificial gentleness of disposition, are the constant inheritance Without being officious, they are obliging; the higher of a Tibetan. ranks are unassuming, the inferior, respectful in their behaviour; nor are they at all deficient in attention to the female sex; in this respect their conduct is equally remote from rudeness and adulation. women of Tibet in higher life enjoy an elevated station in society. the privilege of liberty, the wife adds the character of mistress of the family, and companion of her husbands. Among the humbler classes the company of all, indeed, she is not at all times entitled to expect, different pursuits, either agricultural employments, or mercantile speculations, may occasionally cause the temporary absence of each; yet whatever be the result, the profit of the labourer is expected to flow into the common store; and when one of the husbands returns, whatever may have been his fortune, he is secure of a grateful welcome to a The custom of polyandry which prevails here links whole families together in the matrimonial yoke, checking the increase of population in this singularly unfertile country. It also tends to prevent domestic discords, arising from a division of family interests, and to concentrate all the spirit, and all the virtues, inherent in illustrious Jealousy causes unhappiness and dissensions where several men, not brothers, live in the company of one wife. The several husbands are then called namdo-pyūn, i.e., brothers on account of a joint wife.

In higher life courtship is carried on with little art, and quickly brought to a conclusion. The elder brother of a family, to whom the choice belongs, when enamoured of a damsel, makes his proposal to the parents. If his suit is approved, and the offer accepted, the parents, with their daughter, repair to the suitor's house, when the male and female acquaintances of both parties meet and carouse for the space of three days, with music, dancing, and every kind of festivity. At the expiration of this time, marriage is complete. Mutual consent is generally the bond of union, and the parties present are witnesses to the contract which is formed for life. In case when one man marries one wife mutual consent is supplemented by a pecuniary contract which makes it dissoluble.

The country round the lake does not exhibit a varied prospect;

The Aspect of the lake country of Yam-do.

it is all a leafless, dreary scene; one uniform russet brown covers alike the valleys and the hills. On the summits of the hills, here and there, springs are seen arrested in their fall,

and converted into solid monuments of ice. These contribute greatly, together with the universal nakedness of both hills and valleys, to impress the traveller with an idea of the extreme bleakness of the region, and the rigour of its climate. The atmosphere, indeed, is in an extreme degree keen and pure. The dryness of the soil and scantiness of vegetation, contribute little towards charging the air with humidity. It remains clear even to brilliancy throughout the year. In winter the water of the lake becomes frozen. Its expanse becomes uniformly smooth, presenting a most noble sheet of ice.

In the narrowest parts of the lake there are ferries. During summer and autumn small boats made of an entire skin of a yak ply across them, carrying one or two sheep, goats or persons. In winter on the frozen surface, dust and powdered cow-dung are thrown to make the passage of sheep and goat over them less slippery.

The smaller lakes freeze to a great depth which afford ground for skating, but the people of Tibet are ignorant of that kind of amusement; they, however, are very good sliders.

# II.—ACCOUNT OF TRAVELS.

1. A VISIT TO SAMDING, THE GREAT MONASTERY OF THE LAKE.
COUNTRY OF YAMDO.

On the 15th of May, 1882, while I was proceeding to Lhasa, in the company of Lhacham Kusho, the wife of Shápé Phala, one of the four Ministers of the Grand Lama, of Lhasa, I suddenly fell ill at Nangar-tse.

The kind-hearted lady gave me an introduction to her cousin Dorje Pha-mo, the incarnate female hierach of Samding. In handing over the letter to me she said:—"Fear not Pandubla, Dorje Pha-mo will be as kind to you as myself. We have no hand in the inevitable consequence of Karma. You must submit to it, but I am glad that you have fallen ill here instead of at another place, for here we can send you to Dorje Pha-mo. Come directly to our house when you recover." She warned my two attendants Pador and Lama Tomola surnamed Tshingta not to desert me. Her two sons exhorted Pador to be a faithful and devoted servant to Pandubla (myself), and serve him to the last. It was about 9 A.M., when I slowly rode towards Samding. At a distance of about two miles from Nangar-tse, we crossed a sluggish stream which flowed towards the Yamdo lake. The rivulet was teeming with a small fish and overgrown with a kind of sedge, over which green moss was scattered. The plain over which we travelled was extensive towards the north and south.

Crossing three or four limpid, but sluggish streams, all on their way to join the great lake, we arrived at the eastern side of Samding monastery, which, perched on the top of a barren hill, looked very picturesque. The flight of stone steps from the foot of the hill to the top of it, along which a zig-zag pathway wound up, lined by a stone wall about six feet high and three feet broad, filled me with the greatest dismay: how could I ascend to that height when my heart throbbed even while I was seated on the pony! Arrived at the large Chhorten (stūpa) where pilgrims generally halt and encamp, Tomola asked two men, who were coming down from the monastery, if Dorje Pha-mo was accessible to pilgrims, and if the two physicians were at the monastery. Being answered in the affirmative, I dismounted from the pony, and sat down gasping on a stone step. After a few minntes' rest we commenced our wearisome ascent. Taking rest at every bend of the stair, I reached its top about 300 feet in height. The top of the steps, however, was not the end, for a narrow pathway thence lead us further up to the foot of the monastery. From the eastern edge of the hill we now came to the north-western face of it, whence we enjoyed a grand view of the inner lake of Yamdo. Ascending a few steps, we arrived at the northern gate of the monastery, which faces the inner and higher lake called Dumo-tsho, the demon's lake. I saw with surprise several men walking round the monastery and continually twirling Manikhorlo (prayer wheels), for I thought men, excepting women pilgrims, had no access to the monastery of which the presiding head was an incarnate nun; but the number of monks seemed to be large among the circumambulators. I was led along a narrow lane towards the northeast corner of the monastery. A few minutes after I was waiting

seated on the plinth of the building. Amchi Chhenpo the senior physician arrived, and with an appearance of kindness and sympathy, while feeling my pulse said "mi-tog, mi-tog do not apprehend (danger), do not apprehend; you have come from a great distance, I will give you good medicine." He appeared to be about 70 years in age, quite grey, but with a frame still strong and sturdy, of middle stature, with agreeable features, broad forehead and dignified Helped by Tomola, I followed him, and after ascending two ladders we arrived at the portico of his residence. The old man, while twirling his prayer wheel with the right hand, and frequently taking snuff with his left, observed the working of my lungs with attention as I walked and climbed up. He gave me two powders to be taken with warm water and ordered his cook to serve me with a cup of plain tea. Shortly after being refreshed we went to the place of the venerable lady Dorje Pha-mo, carrying Lhacham's letter. Tomola represented my case to her through the Amchi Chhenpo, and paid five tankas with a scarf for her blessings and protection. Dorje Pha-mo was at this time performing some religious service. She received the letter and immediately consulted certain books on divination to examine my fortune. informed Tomola that she had found my illness to be serious though not fatal, in consequence of which, the speedy observance of some efficacious religious service would be urgently needed. As I had come from Tashi-lhunpo, and with a letter from Lhacham, she would be glad to see me later on. She also conveyed to me her leave to freely ask for anything we might require for subsistence during our stay at Samding. This assurance was most cheering, and enlivened my drooping spirits. Tomola went to the evening congregation of the monks leaving me in the old physician's charge. He presented the assembly with enough of tea and butter, and also a few pieces of silver, together with a scarf, requesting them to pray for my recovery. The monks with one voice prayed that the gods might extend their mercy to me, a pilgrim from a distant land. Next day Tomola arranged to entertain the monks of the monastery who were about eighty, with food.

The monastery of Samding was built on the narrow neck of land which connects the peninsula of Donang with the main land of Tibet. It has the holy lake of Yamdo on its west and the accursed Dumo, the demon's lake, on its east. Dorje Pha-mo is venerated for her power to suppress the demons which, it is believed, infest the latter.

The peninsula of Donang and the smaller islands of the great lake are frequented by great abundance of water-fowl, wild geese, ducks, and storks called *Tung-tung*, which, on the approach of winter take their flight to the milder regions in the Himalayas.

Large numbers of swans, the largest species of the crane kind, come here in summer and autumn and lay eggs, some of which are as large as a turkey's egg, in the sands and in the crevices of rocks near the banks. During the rainy season sounds resembling those of a falling avalanche, or what are called "Barisal guns," are heard from Samding and the neighbouring places to come out of the smaller lake in consequence of which it is called Dumo-tsho—the lake of the demon.

# 2. JOURNEY ON THE SHORES OF LAKE YAMDO-CROFT (PALTI).

On the 23rd of October (1882) on my way to the ancient monastery of Sam-yea, I revisited the place called Dsara tsan-chhur (the nook of the genii), so called on account of its being a hiding place of robbers who waylay travellers. Passing it with feelings of dread and danger, we entered into the tortuous winding of a rugged and gloomy valley, which passed, we began to see light as the glen widened. We then got a peep into the table-land of Nangar-tse and descried the famous monastery of Samding, the late scene of my sufferings. Its white walls and sombre roofs could be distinctly seen At about 10 A.M., we arrived at the solitary village of Rhingla. Formerly when Rhingla was prosperous, a branch monastery of Samding existed here. It is now in ruins with the exception of a chhorten. There are two or three families here who make pottery. We cooked our breakfast in the house of an old potter of 70 whose two sons were engaged in turning pots. They employed a concave wooden pan, on which pots were turned by being twirled with the hand. During the rotation of the pan with the pot the potter shaped the latter with a wooden knife, and sometimes with his fingers. After breakfast we resumed our journey. Crossing the Dsara chhur which rising from Kharula empties itself in the Yamdo lake we ascended along the gentle slopes of a hill to take the road to Talung.

The contrast between the elevated and the lower platform of this lake country is most striking. The latter, which extended up to the margin of the lake, being covered with an extensive carpet of deep verdure, afforded refreshment to the eye, while the former, the abodes only of vultures and kites, was of a most repulsive and inhospitable aspect. The inlets of the Yamdo lake from this side were also numerous. We passed by a walled enclosure, adjoining which there were some ruins. We were told that this enclosure was solely used as a pony market, and that the annual pony fair of Talung formerly used to be held here. There were many  $d\bar{o}k$  sheds, now deserted, probably owing to the shepherds and herdsmen having retired to more fertile parts of the country. We now found ourselves in a gravelly plain

filled with scattered blocks of rock and boulders. The way, which threaded sometimes along the edge of the mountains and sometimes through the middle of the plain, was very rough. I therefore rode very carefully. The village of Talung (country of ponies), which has a hillock in its middle, from a distance presented a very imposing appearance. We arrived at this at 5 P.M. A castle-like monastery with painted windows and corner towers adorns its top. The village is large, containing upwards of two hundred houses, scattered over the flat. the foot of the central hill there is another monastery belong-The barley-fields were all stony and evidently sterile. Far behind were the  $d\bar{o}k$ -pa sheds. The yaks of the place appeared to be of good breed and large size. The people, from the way they had cultivated the lands, seemed very industrious. year's crop had been much damaged by the frost and hailstorm of September. The villagers refused us shelter in their houses, suspecting Phurchung to be a Duk-pa (Bhutanese). The Bhutanese are called: Lhopa (the Southern) at this place, and are very much dreaded, as they often make raids on this place for plundering the villagers of their cattle and grain. The skies were filled with rain clouds, and a slight shower fell. After making fruitless negotiations for securing our night's shelter under a roofed house, at last we came to the gate of the Sakyapa monastery, where many monks, the elders of the villages, and the villagers, including children and women, were standing in anxious expectation of the arrival of Je-tsun kusho of Sakya, who was just returning from a pilgrimage to Mon-chho-nag and other places of the South. The band was playing hautboys, drums, and the gigantic trumpets (called Dung-chhen). Gopon (our guide) winked at us not to speak, so we kept quiet, while he conversed with the villagers and succeeded in convincing them that we were not Dukpas. A kind-hearted Gelong (monk) conducted us to the interior of the monastery compound through a lofty doorway. The hall through which we passed was about 18 feet wide and about 15 feet high. Here the spectators were drawn up in two rows, and the Lamas of the monastery, dressed in their church costumes, were present to receive their revered lady, Je-tsun kusho. The Gelong agreed to accommodate us in the house of one of his friends. The namo (hostess), though very good-natured, still suspected us of being bad men from Bhutan, but being repeatedly assured by Gopon that we were not Bhutanese, she accommodated us in an out-house where ponies are halted, and furnished us with good chhang (malt beer). The stall was far from being comfortable; but since leaving Gyan-tse I had been a stranger to comfort. Phurchung gave me a wretched meal. I slept well amidst the clamour of the religious service occasioned by the arrival of Je-tsun kusho.

24th October 1882.—We resumed our journey a little before sunrise. The streamlets were frozen and the ponies slid several times on the slippery ice; the wind was howling and extremely chill. My face, tightly bandaged with a piece of Assam silk cloth, was well protected; but my feet within the boots began to freeze, and I could hardly draw out my hands from inside the long sleeves of my lambskin vestments. There were no villages near the way. Far behind were the  $d\bar{o}kpa$  tents, whence the howling of mastiffs was alone heard. From this distance the village and the monastery of Taling were visible. After two hours' journey we came to the edge of the Yamdo lake, a nook of which we had now almost doubled. We crossed the Shandung-chhu inlet of Yamdo with much difficulty owing to its being dung-chhu inlet of Yamdo with much difficulty owing to its being frozen. The Shandung monastery and the valley for some time formed the only object of importance within view. The morning sun had lengthened the shadows of the cliffs that overhang the Yamdo; so that we had to journey a long way under their shade, and could not enjoy the genial rays of the sun. To add to the discomforts a very chill, unwelcome breeze blew, freezing our extremities. We had a glimpse of the Chhoi-khor monastery, which is noted for its supplying the whole of Tibet with a class of fantastic densers called Achi Lhame. whole of Tibet with a class of fantastic dancers called Achi-Lhamo actors. Some of these professional players and dancers annually visit Darjeeling. As we came nearer we obtained fuller views of the Chhoikhor monastery, which commanded a singular view, as it was situated like an eagle's eyrie amidst the bleak and sombre cliffs of Yamdo. Passing along the circuitous margin of another nook of the lake, we entered another broad valley with a stream in its middle flowing towards the lake. The large village of Ri-o-tag, I was told, was on this side of Yamdo. After an hour's ride we came within two miles of it. The plateau through which we now passed was several miles long and broad. To our right we saw at a distance of eight or nine miles the ruins of Ri-o-tag Jong. About a mile towards our right hand side we were shown a place near a village where we could breakfast, shortly passing the village we crossed the Ri-o-tag stream after which we crossed a saddle-like eminence. Beyond the latter is a stream flowing to the Yamdo, on the banks of which we halted for breakfast. This was a grassy patch of ground filled with cavities and mole hills. Phurchung prepared me a dish of boiled *phing* (vermicelli made of peas) and mutton with rice. At 10 A.M. we resumed our journey. We were now ascending an undulating plateau. This rose, as we proceeded, in successive retiring terraces, the undulations being in an ascending slope. These were covered with grass, now yellowish brown at the approach of winter. Presently the tortuous winding of the Yamdo came in view as

we ascended a gentle acclivity. An hour's ride brought us to the top of this ridge, which ran in a lateral direction from right to left till obstructed by the lake. From this eminence we saw the villages of Yurop, Kegutag and Khyunpo-do situated on the side of the lake. The country, though very thinly populated, yields extensive pastures, as could be judged from the healthy appearance of the numerous cattle—yak, sheep, goat, and donkeys grazing here and there. At 3 P.M. we saw a man coming towards us at a swift pace. Gopon accosted him, and after a short conversation found him to be his friend's son. As the man was going on urgent business to his home at Ri-o-tag, he said he could not come back to Shari in the evening, but begged us to pass the night at the house of his father-in-law, who was the richest man of Shari. Riding slowly down a gentle slope, we came to a flat dip, where we met a shepherd tending about three to four hundred sheep. He saluted me and pointed out to us the village of Shari, situated on the lee side of a ridge standing between Yamdo and a small lake about six or seven miles The margin of this fresh water lake and the slopes in circumference. on all sides were covered with excellent pasture, on which a number of cattle were grazing, while the lake itself abounded with wild ducks and swans, besides other water-fowl, all of which would have been very tempting objects for sportsmen. The village of Shari, which commands an excellent view of the smaller lake, being situated on an eminence on its bank, contained two rich families, the huts of whose misser (serfs) were scattered round their spacious houses. A long and well repaired mandang (votive pile of inscribed stones) with a pretty chhorten (stūpa) near it formed the frontage. Alighted near the chhorten, I sat on its plinth, and sent Gopon to negotiate for our night's accommodation. His acquaintance, who was unwell, was afraid of receiving us in his house, evidently from apprehension of smallpox. Gopon, however, after much entreaty, obtained his leave for our occupying the Manilhakhang (temple of the mani prayer wheel), and a maid-servant with a kettleful of tea came to conduct us to it. The Manilhakhang was a pretty. turret-like stone house, measuring 8 feet by 10 feet inside with a small spire rising from the middle of its flat roof. Its outside was decorated with a dusky red cornice, and the stones of its bonded walls were painted with Buddhist figures, so it presented an inviting appearance. On entering I was received by a grey-headed man, and a small table was placed before me and tea poured in a China cup for my refreshment. The centre of the room was occupied by a mani cylinder (prayer-wheel) about three feet in diameter and six feet high. Its outside was covered with mantras (charms) in the Lantsha (Rañja character of Magadha) and the ever present mystic expression—Om mani padmē hūm. I spread my rug to the east of the cylinder, and accommodated myself in a space about four feet wide. The old man, whose sole occupation was to turn the prayer-wheel, had his bed at the opposite side. He continually muttered Om nani padmē hūm. The floor was good and remarkably clean; the walls were painted, containing basso-relievo figures from the Buddhist pantheon. There was no forage nor gram for our ponies. Phurchung cooked for me, and Gopon, after regaling himself with several bottles of chhang (malt-beer), went to sleep on the lawn-like margin of the lake, tethering the ponies to graze in the pasture. His friend had assured him that our ponies would not be removed by anybody during the night. The wind blew rather strongly during the first part of the night. I gave some rice and tea to the old man, who, considering me a sacred personage, prostrated himself several times to salute me, though I vainly tried to explain to him that being a layman I did not deserve such homage from anybody. When he came to receive my chhag-wang (benediction from the touch of the hand), I told him that I was no incarnate being, and could not place my palms on his grey head, but being equally subject to misery like himself, I could touch his forehead with mine as a token of sympathy with him as a brother man. I also pointed out to him the hands of Pema Jun-nē (Padma Sambhava) the saint, where he could apply his forehead for benediction.

But this only impressed him with still more pious feelings, and he called some of his acquaintances, a few shepherds, to prostrate themselves before me, which they did. The old man told us of the condition of the monastery of Shari Gonsar, situated on the top of a hill behind the village, and also of the village where we ought to halt next day. I passed the night very comfortably.

25th October.—I awoke early in the morning, about 4 o'clock, refreshed and in good spirits. The ponies saddled, we started for Khame-dō, our next stage. The wind began to blow afresh with much fury, and the chill was simply tormenting. My body, though well protected by lambskins, could not escape the penetrating effects of the cold, and began to freeze. After crossing two large inlets of the Yamdo, we came to a nook of the great lake. While traversing the little promontary overhanging this nook, we met a woman of about 40 cutting wild plants resembling brushwood. The cold was so severe that I could hardly bring out my hands from within the fur sleeves, yet the woman was doing her work as if it was a summer morning with her. The nook passed, we came to a solitary village with three or four huts belonging to two dōk-pa families. Some yaks were grazing on the margin of the lake, which here presented a very desolate and

solitary appearance. Some pointed rocks interposed here and there. This passed, we crossed a small La (hill) and descended towards another lake which, with its grassy flat shores and the undulating slopes above them, looked very lovely and cheering. The dark blue expanse of water, now ruffled by the wind, rose in gentle waves. This was the lake Rombu-dsa, which is fed by a few inlets. Our way partly lay along the dried margin of the lake, which was sandy, and partly in grassy paths above the highest water mark. We passed a caravan of yaks and donkeys carrying heaps of fuel, consisting of fragrant weeds and some wood. After a slow ride of two hours along the margin of this lake and a flat valley beyond it we entered into a gorge, from which we had a glimpse of the Yamdo lake. Here there are two roads to Khame-dō one by the side of the great lake, and the other via Melung village across the Lonagla Pass. I was told that the latter was rather difficult on account of the steepness of the La. I, however, preferred the more difficult route, having been informed that I would have to use the saltish water of the Yamdo at breakfast if I went by the easier one. Half an hour's ride from this gorge brought us to the village of Melung. It was past 11 A.M. when I dismounted at the door of the Gambu's (village headman) house. He received me with much politeness, and begged to know how he could serve us. We bought chhang for our use and hay for our ponies. I preferred to sit in the yard, which was filled with cowdung, the Gambu's house being very low and the ceiling covered with soot. The Nabo's (host) brother sat near us and had a chat with Gopon about the Chinese Ampa's movements, as  $\bar{U}lag$  (road service) was demanded from them. After breakfast we resumed our journey, intent upon reaching the next stage, which according to Gopon would be the village of Khame-do. Our guide always sought places for halting where he had acquaintances; so that sometimes we halted after marching long distances, and sometimes after very short marches. Passing a dried-up water-course filled with boulders and broken stones, we ascended the steep slopes of Lonagla, also filled with splinters, rocks, There were evidently no pastures, but still a few yaks and sheeps were grazing at this barren place. Gopon picked up some flints, and told us that the village derived its name from the flints, as mē in Tibetan means 'fire' and lung a "valley." Hence Melung is fire or flint valley. The La was high, and our ponies were knocked up. the village to the top of the Pass it was about a mile's distance. The La crossed, we entered another spacious and flat valley intersected by sparkling brooks. On the slopes of the hills here juniper and other fragrant plants grow in abundance. The pastures for yaks and sheep were of luxuriant growth. The grass of this pleasant valley, now

growing yellow, refreshed our eyes. There was a remarkable contrast in the appearance of the opposite sides of Lonagla. Crossing the bends of several tiny streams, and passing across the valley, we arrived at the village of Kha, where the men and women were engaged in threshing corn. Heaps of sheaves lay in their yards. We now found ourselves in an extensive open country, more resembling a plain. As we proceeded onward, we caught a glimpse of some jong (castle) standing on a distant isolated peak. The valley was filled with numerous The villagers, intent on their work, did not care to inquire about us, but only now and then stared at us with some curiosity. The dogs of this place were very fierce and powerful, and kept barking as long as we remained in their sight. Passing many houses on our left, and walking a distance of about a quarter of a mile, we entered the large village of Khame-do, which stands on the flat slope of the ridge extending to the back of the village of Kha. At the entrance of the village there were several Mandangs. After inquiring from several villagers where we could get accommodation for the night, we were pointed out the house of one of the richest residents of the place who usually received guests. Several seats made of slabs resembling marble were placed in the courts of their residences as well as in the open ground. The houses of the villagers were very good looking, large and whitewashed. The barley stalks were stout and long. Gopon told me that some of these altar-like seats were made by potters and painted with The villagers use them for basking in the sun. At 5 p.m. we came to the gate of the rich resident whose guest we were to be. After much knocking we succeeded in getting the door opened by an old woman, who, after inquiring what we wanted, disappeared. After a while the nabo, an old man of nearly seventy, made his appearance and showed us his stable, where we could pass the night. It was on account of our guide's foolishness that we failed to get better accommodation here, for he offered only to pay one tanka (six annas) as houserent, whereas this miserly landlord asked for more. I paid the nela (rent) immediately, which pleased the old man, who at my request supplied us with two stuffed cushions and a screen. The latter was very useful, as at the time a strong wind blew and we had no other protection against it, for the stables in Tibet are not like those in India. They are stalls open on three sides. When my rugs were spread and I took my seat as a respectable man, the nabo drew near and began to converse with me about the harvest which the people had just reaped. The crop of this year, he said, was damaged by the September frost. We bought from him a Phagri (sheep burnt like a pig after slaughter). This yielded us very fat mutton. Our host was one of

est men of the village, which contained upwards of a hundred families. His house is very large and surrounded by a wall with three gates. There were plenty of willow, juniper and other fragrant plants in this village. The juniper plant formed a part of their fuel, which chiefly consisted of dried cattle dung.

26th October.—I rose from bed at sunrise. Our miserly nabo came early to take back from us the curtain and the fine articles which he had lent us. We parted with him after an exchange of polite expressions. He begged us to come to his house on our way back. resumed our journey at 6 A.M. A villager joined us near the precipitous rock which stands at the entrance of the village on this side. proved a pleasant companion for a few miles. We passed along the side of another small lake, and were shown the large village of Ling, the seat of the Jongpon of this side of the Yamdo District. fellow talked of certain orders that were received by the Jongpon of Ling from Lhasa to examine strangers travelling within his jurisdic-He also said that similar orders were sent to Sam-yea. crossed two little streams with him by wading across them. When we came to the bank of a third stream, which was the largest, he parted with us after showing us the rab (ford). My pony, in wading through the half frozen stream, once sank up to his knees, Gopon extricated us with much exertion. The pony had several stumbles besides. now entered the extensive table-land of Kamoling, the Arcadia of Tibet. Here were grazing hundreds of ponies belonging to the Government of The head of the Government stables has one of his establishments here. It took us several hours to cross a bend of this large pasture land. Its breadth was ten to twelve miles, but its length appeared very great. There was no water in the several water-courses which intersected the plain. In some of the streamlets bulging crusts of ice were seen. We were very thirsty. At noon we arrived at the village of Shabshe, containing nine or ten families.

We cooked our breakfast in the court of a poor woman's house, filled with goat's dung and some goats' hair-bags and hay. Our good namo kindly lent us some fire-wood. The object of our preferring dirty huts and stables in a village to clean flats and river banks was that we got fuel, water, water-vessels, &c., from the host, which, as a rule, were generally included in the nela (house-rent). The namo was a very well-behaved and obliging woman. Though very poor, she seemed to be in good spirits and cheerful. She has three children by two joint husbands. We bought one-fourth of a sheep at one tanka from one of her neighbours, and some barley meal, of inferior quality.

After breakfast we resumed our journey. As there were several

ways leading in different directions, our good namo kindly accompanied us a short distance to show us the way to Sam-yea. There were other villages scattered in this upland plain, which passed we came to the little village of Tan-tha, situated at the foot of the La, we were about to ascend. Climbing up a short distance, we came near some well-constructed re-These from a distance appeared like some cluse's cells, now empty. monastic establishments. Gopon showed to me the monastery, situated on a dome-shaped hill near the lake, but half a mile off from the place. The ascent from here was very tiresome. But all these fatigues vanished when the height gradually widening the horizon brought sublimer scenes to my enchanted eyes. I really thought that the view from the top of Thib-la, of the snowy country of Tibet, of her far-famed lake and river, and of an immense congregation of snowy mountains which skirts like silvery fringes, on the vanishing line of the dark blue sky in the horizon, cannot be equalled by the sceneries of the glorious Himalaya. The numerous windings of this scorpion lake, as Yamdo is called, the countless hills and mountains which they surrounded, and the waving line in the horizon where the snows of Noijon Kang-Zang mingle with the blue summits of distant mountain ranges, were all visible from Thib-la. The valley of the deep and meandering Tsanpo, the dark pine and fir forests which here and there broke the monotony of the bleak mountain scenery, and the snowy mountains of Lhobra, bore a striking contrast to the scenery on the other side. Both defy description. On the southern flanks of this lofty pass, which appeared to be more than four thousand feet above the lake, a kind of broad-leafed plants, called yeshi kogo, grow. The dried leaves rustled as they were blown by the wind. The wind blew so strongly that I found it difficult to stand. increased the fatigues of this exceedingly trying journey along the steep slopes of Thib-la. The down-hill journey was worse than the up-hill one. At 5 P.M. we arrived at the village of Thib. There were about ten houses in this little village, all clustered together and only separated from one another by narrow lanes and barley fields. Heaps of hay and unthreshed barley lined these little avenues. There were some willows of stunted growth in the village. We were conducted to the house of a well-to-do villager. The namo received us very kindly. One of her husbands was in the field reaping barley crop. Her elder husband was gone to Lhasa. We were accommodated in the upper floor of her house which was spacious enough. A part of the house was under repair. The night was very fine and the skies bright, and the little village with its white-washed houses and fields was bleached with moonlight.

# An ancient inscribed Buddhistic statue from Çrāvastī.—By Theodor Bloch, Ph.D.

## [Read March, 1898.]

The statue with which I am dealing in this paper, was discovered by General Cunningham during the working season of 1862-1863 among the ruins of the modern Set-Mahet, in the Gonda District, Fyzabad Division, of Oudh. It was presented by His Excellency the Viceroy Lord Elgin to the Asiatic Society of Bengal in 1863, and is now in the Indian Museum. It is a colossal standing figure, 11' 8" high, made of a sort of reddish sand-stone, the same material which the Mathurā sculptures of the Kuṣaṇa period are made of. The head, the halo, and the right arm are almost entirely gone; the left hand is slightly damaged. The body is represented clad in a large garment, which leaves bare the right shoulder only. It is tied round the waist by a girdle, and reaches down to the ankles; round the left shoulder it is laid in the fashion of a Roman tunica. The feet are naked, and a peculiar object of uncertain meaning is represented standing between The statue has always been described as an image of Buddha, but from what follows it will become clear that this is not quite It is a figure of a Bodhisattva, and not of a Buddha. But, in any case, we may fairly well conclude from the analogy of similar statues that the missing right arm of the figure was represented lifted up in an attitude which is usually called that of "teaching," while the left hand rested on the hip, holding up the end of the long vestment.

The most important part of the statue, however, is its pedestal. This is due to the fact that it contains in three lines an inscription in ancient characters of what Prof. Bühler in his Indian Palæography has called "the Northern Kṣatrapa type" of the last century B.C. or the first A.D. This inscription has been edited before by R. L. Mitra,

<sup>1</sup> The statue has been described or referred to previously by General Cunningham in Archæological Survey Reports, Vol. I, p. 339, Vol. V, p. VII, and Vol. XI, p. 86, and by Dr. Anderson in his catalogue of the Archæological Collections in the Indian Museum, Vol. I, p. 194.

in this Journal, Vol. XXXIX (1870), Part I, p. 130, and Plate VII, No. XXI, and by Prof. Dowson in Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, New Series, Vol. V, p. 192 and Plate 3, No. XXXII. Both these editions are very unsatisfactory indeed, and it is for this reason that I now re-edit this ancient document.

The pedestal which contains the inscription, measures 3' by 6"; the inscription consists of three lines of writing, the size of which varies between  $1\frac{3}{4}$ " and  $\frac{1}{2}$ ". Unfortunately the greater portion of the first line and a few characters in the beginning of the second are entirely gone; the remainder, however, is in a fair state of preservation. The lost portion contained the date, and it is owing to its loss that we are to resort to palæographic evidence for the purpose of forming an idea as to the age of the record itself and of the statue on which it is inscribed. I have already above stated my opinion on this point in describing the characters of the inscription as belonging to the "Northern Kṣatrapa Type." This type is to be found in the inscriptions of the Mahākṣatrapa Çuḍasa or Çōḍāsa, the son of Ranjubula, whose reign in the North-West of India preceded that of the Kuṣaṇa Kings Kaniṣka, Huviṣka, etc. Of Çōḍāsa, hitherto three inscriptions have been found, viz.:—

- (1) An inscription from the Jail Mound in Mathurā: Arch. Surv. Rep., Vol. III, p. 30, and No. 1, Plate XIII;
- (2) An inscription from the Kankālī Tīlā at Mathurā: Ep. Ind., Vol. II, p. 199, No. II (with facsimile);
- (3) The Mora Well Inscription: Arch. Surv. Rep., Vol. XX, p. 48, and Plate V, No. 4.3

Compared with the considerably larger number of Kuṣaṇa inscription, the characters of these documents differ in the following points:—

- (a) the letter ya when forming the second part of a compound (samyuktākṣara) is expressed by its full sign, not by the ligature: so in No. 1 (Mathurā Jail Mound Inscription) throughout, viz., svāmisya, mahākṣatrapasya, Çōḍāsasya (A. S. R., Vol. III, Pl. XIII); in No. 2 and No. 3 no compound letter with ya occurs;
- (b) the upper cross-bar of the letter sa consists only of a short horizontal line attached to the left hand vertical line of the letter, while in the Kuṣaṇa sa, as a rule, it reaches as far as the right hand

<sup>1</sup> See also Cunningham, l.c., p. 339, and Vol. XI, p. 87.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> With the exception of Mathurā Lion Capital, of course, which is inscribed in Kharōṣṭhī.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> This is, correctly spoken, only an inscription of a son of Rājūvūla. His name is lost, but, in all probability, he was Çōdāsa. A photo taken from an impression of this inscription is in the Indian Museum.

vertical line. This rule also holds good throughout in all the three inscriptions, viz., No. 1, l. 1: kṣatrapasya, l. 2: puṣkariṇī (twice); No. 2, l. 2: kṣatrapasa, l. 3: ghōṣēna (twice); No. 3, l. 1: kṣatrapasa, l. 2: vṛṣnēna, l. 4: vapuṣā;

- (c) the more archaic form of ça is preserved, against the Kuṣaṇa form of this letter, which is nearly like a ṣa turned upside down: compare e. g. the ça of Çōḍāsasa with çiçini of Nos. II and XI, Ep. Ind., Vol. II, p. 199 and 201;
- (d) of compound letters, as a rule, the top of the second lower-most letter is marked by the *seriff*, this letter being not merely a continuation of the down-stroke of the first. Thus, in No. 1, 1. 1: mahākṣatrapasya, çōḍāsasya, 1. 2: paṣcima, stambha; in No. 2, 1. 2: svāmisa, mahākṣatrapasa, samvatsarē; in No. 3, 1. 3: yastā, 1. 4: jvalatā;
- (e) the writing, as a rule, is done with greater care and shows a preference for angular forms, against the cursive, slovenly executed letters of the Kuṣaṇa Inscriptions. This will become clear at once by glancing over the facsimile-plates of Prof. Bühler's articles on Mathurā Inscriptions in Ep. Ind., Vols. I and II.

The same peculiarities of writing which, I trust, will be considered sufficient proof of an earlier age of the Northern Ksatrapa type, as compared with the Kuṣaṇa type, occur also in a number of cognate inscriptions from Mathurā or the country around it. Thus, e.g., in the Anyor Inscription in A. S. R., Vol. XX, Plate V, No. 5, and in Mathurā Inscriptions, ed. Bühler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. 33; Vol. II, No. 4, 5 and 7. Among the Kuṣaṇa Inscriptions, I know of only one document which exhibits the same characteristics. It is the inscription on the Elephant Capital from the Kaṅkālī Tīlā at Mathurā, figured in Plate V of A. S. R. Vol. III.<sup>2</sup> This inscription is dated in the reign of

- 1 Of this inscription I have only seen the facsimile in Plate XIII of A. S. R., III, which is not altogether reliable as to these minor details.
- <sup>2</sup> See also p. 20 of text. Of this interesting sculpture, the Indian Museum also possesses a photograph. In the Inscription it is said to be a Nandiviçāla, which may mean, that the pillar was "as big as Nandin," but which also may be a technical term of unknown meaning. It is a Jaina sculpture, as may be seen from the concluding line of the inscription, which records that the monument was erected Arahamtanam pujāyē 'in adoration of the Arhants.' The inscription, according to the photograph, reads:
  - (line 1) [Ma]h[ā]r[ā]jasya Dēvaputrasya Huviṣkasya sam 30-8
  - (line 2)  $h\bar{e}$  3 di 10-1  $\bar{e}t\bar{a}y\bar{e}$   $purv\bar{a}y\bar{e}$   $na\dot{m}di\text{-}vic\bar{a}l\bar{o}$
  - (line 3) pratisthāpitō Çivadāsa-çrēsthi-putrēna çrēsthinā
  - (line 4) [A]ryyēṇa Rudradāsēna Arahamtanam pujāyē.

This means: "On the 11th day of the 3rd half-month (paksa) of the cold season, in the year 38, (during the reign of) Mahārāja Dēvaputra Huviṣka, on this date (specified as) above, this (pillar which is) as big as Nandin (?) has been set up by

Huviṣka, in the year 38 (38 in text; the plate gives 18), and here too the ancient form of ṣa is preserved throughout; but ya in compound letters is given in its full form only once, in āryyēṇa (line 4), and the rule as to the seriff on top of the second part of compound letters never appears to be observed. Thus, this isolated document cannot prove much against what I have said above as to the difference between the Northern Kṣatrapa and Kuṣaṇa type of writing.

Now it is the former, not the latter, type to which the characters of the inscription from Çrāvastī almost decidedly belong. This will be clear even from the facsimile given by Prof. Dowson.<sup>1</sup>

Thus: (a) the letter ya in compounds is expressed by its full form throughout with the only exception of puṣya in line 1, where we have a ligature of exactly the same form as e.g. in the various compound letters sya in No. 12, of A. S. R., Vol. III, Plate XIV; thus, in line 1: bhikṣusya, line 2: saddhyavihārisya, bhikṣusya, Balasya, trēpiṭakasya, line 3: acaryyāṇām;

- (b) şa is written in its ancient form, with a small cross-bar, throughout: viz., line 1: bhikṣusya, Puṣya, line 2: bhikṣusya;
- (c) ça occurs in its archaic form throughout: viz., line 2:  $d\bar{a}n\dot{q}acca$ ,  $C\bar{a}vastiy\bar{e}$ ;
- (d) the rule as to the seriff in compound letters is observed almost throughout: see line 1: purvayē, bhikṣusya, line 2: saddhyavihārisya, bhikṣusya, Balasya, trēpiṭakasya, bōdhisatvō, chātraṁ, dāṇḍa, Çāvastiyē, line 3: acaryyānāṁ, sarvastivādinaṁ. There is only one exception from this rule, viz., the letter çca in dāṇḍaçca (line 2). This letter exhibits a cursive form, which looks very much like çya, but there remains no doubt as to the correctness of my reading, as may be seen from the context;
- (e) the shape of the letters is decidedly more angular and reminds one strongly of the letters in Çōdāsa's inscriptions. In addition to this, I must call special attention to the da of dāndaçca (line 2), which is of a much more archaic form than that usually met with in Kuṣaṇa. or even Northern Kṣatrapa inscriptions.

It is for all these reasons that I am inclined to believe that the inscription contained a date referring to the reign of one of the Ksatrapa

the Seth, the noble Rudradāsa, the son of the Seth Çivadāsa, in adoration of the Arhants." Both the Donor's and his father's name are compounds made with Çiva, the pillar is described as being as big as Nandin, the famous vehicle of Çiva; but the concluding words dedicate the monument to the Arhants. Jainism apparently already in those early times was as much mixed up with Çaivism as its greater rival, Buddhism.

1 I regret that it is impossible at present to publish a photograph of the Statue or a facsimile of the Inscription.

predecessors of the Kuṣaṇa Kings.¹ The inscription, accordingly, and so also the statue itself, belong to the last century B.C., or the first century A.D., for the question as to the date of those Northern Kṣatrapa Kings depends entirely on the date of Kaniṣka and his successors, a point, on which, to my mind also, Mr. Fergusson's phantastical conclusions have been too readily accepted by Prof. Oldenberg and others. In any case, there remains no doubt that the statue is one of the oldest Buddhistic images which hitherto have been found in India.

I now publish my transcript of the inscription, made from the original stone:

# Transcript.

- (line 2). [स्य] श्वसद्यविद्वारिस्य भिद्धास्य बनस्य नेपिटकस्य दानं बोधिसलो ? कानं दाण्डस्य ग्रावस्तिये भगवतो चंकमे
- (line 3). कोसंबक्तिये अचर्याणां सर्वेस्तिवादिनं 4 परिगहे ॥

## Translation.

"(During the reign of—, in the year—, season—, half-month—, on the) 19th (day), on this date (specified as) above (this statue of) a Bōdhisattva (together with) an umbrella and a stick, (being) the gift of the monk Bala, a teacher of the Tripiṭaka, (and) fellow-wanderer of the monk Puṣya-(mitra), (has been set up) in Çrāvastī, at the place where the Blessed One (i.e., Buddha) used to walk, in the Kōsaṁba-kuṭī, for the acceptance of the teachers belonging to the Sarvāstivāda-School."

The language of this inscription is the well-known mixed dialect of Sanskrit and Prakrit which is met with in all the Mathurā Inscriptions of the Kuṣaṇa period and thereabout. Practically it is the same

- I The date must have contained a reference to the reign of a king. The broken portion of line 1 is much too long for a simple date, expressed, moreover, only by  $sa\dot{m}$  and similar abbreviations, as is the rule throughout in Mathurā and other cognate Inscriptions.
- <sup>2</sup> Only the second portion, viz. ya, of this compound letter is visible. It is, however, evident that this ya belonged to the Genitive-termination of the proper name beginning with Pusya, which may be conjectured to have been Pusyamitrasya.
  - 3 Traces of the first  $\bar{o}$  of  $B\bar{o}dhisatv\bar{o}$  are still visible on the stone.
- 4 The letter  $v\bar{a}$  of  $Sarvastiv\bar{a}dina\dot{m}$  has been added later. It is very small and hardly visible on the facsimile, but clear enough on the stone. Apparently the "additional letter ta between sarvasti and  $dina\dot{m}$ , shown in R. L. Mitra's copy" as mentioned by Prof. Dowson (l. c. p. 192) is this letter  $v\bar{a}$ .

language in which the  $g\bar{a}th\bar{a}s$  of the Lalitavistara or similar Buddhistic books are written, and which I consider with Prof. Bühler, Kern and others to be the result of persons who spoke Prakrit and were unlearned in Grammar, trying to write Sanskrit. In fact till very late at the end of the Buddhistic period, all the Buddhistic Inscriptions are notorious for their neglect of the rules of spelling and grammar, and also the Buddhistic Sanskrit Literature, with a few rare exceptions, can not certainly be called classic as to its style, whatever its merits else may have been. The fact that the mixed dialect is exclusively used in the inscriptions of Kaniska and even earlier certainly proves the correctness of the Buddhistic tradition which places the translation into Sanskrit of the Buddhistic Scriptures into the time of Kaniska. In the Çrāvastī Inscription, we meet with the following instances of mixed forms, being half Sanskrit and half Prakrit:-

- (a) the Loc. Sing. of feminine nouns in  $\bar{a}$  or  $\bar{i}$  is  $-ay\bar{e}$  (i.e,  $-\bar{a}y\bar{e}$ ) or  $-iy\bar{e}$ ; thus:  $\bar{e}tay\bar{e}$  purvay $\bar{e}$  (l. 1),  $\bar{C}\bar{a}vastiy\bar{e}$  (l. 2),  $K\bar{o}sambakutiy\bar{e}$  (l. 3); (b) of masculine nouns in i or u, the Genitive Sing. takes -sya;
- thus: bhikṣusya (11. 1 and 2), saddhyavihārisya (1. 2);
- (c) compound letters are sometimes given in their Sanskritic, sometimes in their Prakritic form; thus camkamē (l. 2), parigahē (l. 3.) for Skt. camkramē and parigrahē, against saddhyavihārisya (l. 2; Sanskrit sadhryagvihārin) and acaryyāṇām l. 3 (Skt. ācāryāṇām). Another instance is Çāvastiyē (l. 2) for Skt. Çrāvastyām; this form, however, curiously enough re-occurs in the Bhāgavata Purāṇa (see Petersburg Dictionary s. v. Çāvastī);
- (d) long vowels before compound letters are shortened as a rule, in accordance with Prakrit; thus: acaryyāṇām Sarvastivādinam (l. 3) for Skt. ācāryāṇām Sarvāstivādinām. The long vowel of chātrum dāṇḍaç=ca (1.2) for Skt. chattram daṇḍaç=ca which is perfectly clear on the original stone, is due to the vernacular pronunciation, and agrees with such forms as āmtēvāsi for Skt. antēvāsi in various other Mathurā Inscriptions, and the genitive termination -asa instead of -assa in Bharhut. The sandhi of dāndaç=ca (ibid.) is, of course, an instance of the opposite tendency;
- (e) a form of peculiar interest is saddhyavihārin in line 2. It corresponds to sādhivihārin in Sanchi Inscriptions, I, 209 (Ep. Ind. II, p. 379), where it has been translated 'fellow-wanderer' by Prof. Bühler (l. c.). Its first part is in Pāli saddhim, which in the dialect of this Inscription becomes saddhya. This clearly shows that Pāli saddhim does not go back to Sanskrit sārdham, as has been hitherto assumed by most scholars, but to Sanskrit सध्यक् sadhryak, as has been first recognized by Prof. Pischel.

The Inscription records the gift of a Bōdhisattva by a monk Bala to some teachers of the Sarvāstivāda School, who resided at Çrāvastī. He is called "a fellow wanderer (saddhyavihārin) of the monk Puṣya—(probably Puṣyamitra)" and a Trēpiṭaka or in Sanskrit Traipiṭaka, i.e., "one who has studied or teaches the Tripiṭaka." A similar term, pēṭakin, is met with as early as the Bharhut Inscriptions,¹ and in later time we find the same title in the Inscription No. 6 from Kanheri (Arch. Surv. Rep. Western India, Vol. V, p. 77), a document written in characters of the 4th or 5th century A.D., where we read of a "traipiṭakōpāddhyāya-bhadanta-Dharmavatsa.² This clearly proves that the Tripiṭaka must have been studied in India till at least the end of the 5th century A.D. The existence in these days at and near Mathurā of the school of Sarvāstivādins, to which the recipients of the gift belonged, is well-known to us already from cognate inscriptions, and does not call for any remark.

By far the most important statements of the inscription, however, are the description of the gift itself, and of the locality where it was set The former is described as "a statue of a Bōdhisattva, an umbrella and a stick" (Bōdhisatvō chātram dāndaç=ca, line 2). The Bōdhisattva of course is the statue on which the inscription is engraved; the umbrella apparently surmounted the statue, similar ones being frequently met with among the sculptures from Gandhara. In Bharhut, Sanchi and Gaya the presence of Buddha is generally indicated by a throne (vajrāsana) surmounted by an umbrella, and these also remain associated with him in later Buddhistic art. It is evident that the umbrella belongs to Buddha because he is a cakravartin, just as the wheel, the sign of the unrestrained progress of the law, marks him as an apratihatacakra or 'universal king.' According to the Lalita Vistara, the two signs of royalty, the umbrella and the two chowrees appeared already at his birth; we read here (p. 96) that at that time antarikṣē dvē cāmarē ratnacchattram ca prādur abhūt, and among the various relievos from Gandhara representing this scene, which are now in the Indian Museum, there is one on which the artist literally followed the poet's words and sculptured a chowree hanging in the air. The stick (dāndaç=ca) I believe to have been a portion of the umbrella by which it was connected with the halo surrounding the head; it may have been laid out with jewels

<sup>1</sup> See Dr. Hultzsch's Edition in Zeitschrift d. Deutsch. Morgenl. Ges., Vol. XL, p. 74 and Indian Antiquary, Vol. XXI, p. 23 f, No. 134.

<sup>2</sup> I believe traipiṭaka and upādhyāya are two different titles of Dharmavatsa. He was one who had studied the three Piṭakas, and he had acquired the academical degree of Upādhyāya or "teacher." Traipiṭaka also occurs very often as a distinguishing title in Tārānātha's Tibetan History of Buddhism in India, where Schiefner translates, "Dreikorbhalter."

or some precious stones, for if it was merely a piece of wood or iron, no reason seems to me why the inscription mentions it specially. The umbrella, then rightly might have been called a ratnacchattra.

The statue itself is described as an image of a Bodhisattva, not of a Buddha. To everyone who is acquainted with the ancient Buddhistic scriptures, it is well known that these two terms are never used promiscuously, but strictly distinguished from each other,2 and that such a supposition would be quite out of place here, may be easily seen by comparing this word with the other Bhagavatō camkamē in the same line of the Inscription, where Buddha is spoken of as Bhagavān. This can be easily confirmed by looking over other ancient inscribed statues of Here, with one exception only, the term Bodhisattva is never. Buddha. employed in describing the image, but such other terms as Buddha, Tathāgata, Bhagavān, Çāstā, etc., which also in literature signify the teacher after he had reached the state of enlightenment, in distinction from the preliminary stage of a Bodhisattva or, as it is generally explained, "a being that in this birth is destined to reach the  $b\bar{o}dhi$ , without being born again." I refer to the following inscriptions:-

- (1) An Inscription on the pedestal of a large statue of Buddha, in Anyor near Mathurā: A. S. R. Vol. XX, p. 49 and Plate V, No. 5: the characters of the Inscription belong to the Northern Kṣatrapa type. The statue is described in line 1 as Buddha-pratimā;
- (2) An Inscription, incised on the base of a large seated Buddha, found in the town of Kāman: Epigr. Indica, Vol. II, p. 212 and No. 42 of Facsimile Plate. The date of the Inscription Sam 74 with all probability refers to the Kuṣaṇa

1 I must at least mention one other possible, though highly improbable, explanation of the words. On the Mathurā Lion Capital a samanachatra is mentioned which Prof. Bühler hesitatingly translated by 'a stūpa of a monk;' see Journ. Roy. As. Soc., New Ser., 1894, p. 536, note 6. He refers to the modern chatrī which is used for a certain class of tomb-like monuments not uncommon in Northern India, which, however, to my mind do not seem to have any structural resemblance with a Buddhist stūpa, but rather look like Muhammadan Maqbirahs. But, granted the correctness of this explanation, then we might take chātram in our Inscription as 'a stūpa'; danda might refer to something similar to the yathi (yasthi) in the Sue Bihar Inscription; see Dr. Hoernle's edition in Ind. Ant., Vol. X, p. 327, probably 'a metal rod containing the seven precious substances, and deposited inside the stūpa.' This explanation, though scarcely probable, would however, prove important for the question as to whether the statue has been found by General Cunningham in situ, or not.

2 A few isolated instances adduced by Prof. Windisch in his Māra und Buddha, p. 211, cannot prove anything for the time to which this statue belongs.

- Era. The statue is described as  $Bhagavat\bar{o}$  Çakyamuninā (read:— $munin\bar{o}$ )  $pratim\bar{a}$ ;
- (3) An Inscription on a statue of Buddha from Mankuar: Fleet, Gupta Inscriptions, p. 45. The Inscription is dated in the 129 of the Gupta Era, corresponding to 448–449 A.D. The statue is described as Bhagavatō samyak-sambuddhasya sva-matā-viruddhasya...pratimā;
- (4) An Inscription under a figure of Buddha in the Kanheri Caitya Cave No. III: Arch. Surv. Rep. of Western India, Vol. V, p. 77, No. 6. The Inscription is written in characters of the Western alphabet of the 4th or 5th century A.D. The figure is called Bhagavat-pratimā (line 3 of inscription);
- (5) An Inscription on the base of a statue of Buddha from Sarnath, near Benares, now in Indian Museum: Fleet, Gupta Inscriptions, p. 281. The Inscription, on palæographical grounds, may be allotted roughly to the 5th century A.D. The statue is labelled as pratimā Çāstuḥ.

These are the only ancient Buddha statues, as far as I know, which contain Inscriptions giving us a clue as to the meaning of the image. But there is one remarkable statue still left which I have already been alluding to above. It is a statue of a seated Buddha from Budh Gaya, figured by General Cunningham in his Mahābōdhi, Plate XXV, and described ibid., p. 53. This statue is also now in the Indian Museum, but unfortunately an inspection of the original sculpture does not give any more help in deciphering the mutilated Inscription on the On the contrary, some more letters have still broken off, and not even the whole context of Cunningham's facsimile is now to be found But so much at least seems to me certain that its purport was to record the fact that a certain Bhiksu set up this statue of a Bōdhisattva, who was represented as seated on a simhāsana, traces of which are still visible on the sculpture behind the neck of the figure. Thus, I believe, the words in line 2 of the Inscription, viz., Bōdhisattvapratimām simharathē pratisthāpayati are best accounted for. Here then again we have a statue of a Bodhisattva, not of a Buddha.1

How then is this discrepancy to be accounted for? There is nothing in the head-dress to distinguish the Gaya Image from any

I I do not agree with General Cunningham referring the date 64 of line 1 of the Inscription to the Çaka Era. The form of some letters of the Inscriptions, especially of sa, is much later and the true date probably lies 150 or 200 years behind. I am unable to make anything out of the name of the Mahārāja mentioned in the beginning of the record.

ordinary Buddha statue of about the same time or even later. With respect to the Çrāvastī Image, we must leave off this point at all, as the head unfortunately is broken. But the point, on which both the Gaya and Çrāvastī image are alike to each other, while they differ from any ordinary Buddha statue, is the shape in which the garment is laid round the body, leaving naked in both the right shoulder. ordinary type of Buddha represents the teacher dressed in the samphāți that large vestment which covers the whole body of a Buddhist monk, reaching to the ankles and leaving bare only the neck and the shaved head. It looks, indeed, very much so as if Buddhist artists in trying to revive the figure of their divine Lord in painting or in stone, did not imitate any other type among the Hindu Pantheon, but tried to depict the Lord so as the pious mind believed him to have been, and the model from which the first statues of Buddha were made, was the appearance of an ordinary Bhiksu, just as the Jainas made the images of their Tirthamkaras look like an ordinary Yati. If General Cunningham, therefore, with respect to the Cravasti statue says that "the right shoulder is bare as in all Buddhist figures" (Arch. Surv. Rep., Vol. I, p. 339), this is decidedly wrong. The evidence adduced above rather leads us to believe that wherever we find a Buddhist statue which has the right shoulder bare, this is to be taken as a sign that the statue represents not a Buddha, but a Bōdhisattva.2

It is not my intention here to press this argument. The evidence, I admit, is but scanty, and the subject is one which still labours under great difficulties. I merely want to point, in connexion herewith, to two other facts which tend to corroborate the result thus arrived at. The first point is taken from the Gandhara sculptures. Here the type with the right shoulder bare, occurs only in connection with a particular position of the hands which is generally described as

I know of one more Buddha statue of very much the same style as the Çrāvastī Image. It is only the upper part of the statue, shown on a photograph in the Indian Museum together with the statue described in A. S. R. X, 5, which Dr. Führer in his List wrongly calls an image of Açvaghōṣa, but which really seems to be an image of a Nāgarāja. Here the head is preserved; it is without any ornament or dress, the hair represented in the same conventional way as in the Mankuar Image where Mr. Fleet erroneously speaks of "a close fitting cap." The uṣṇōṣa or 'skullborn' is also seen on this fragment. The vestment is very much like the Çrāvastī Image.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> There is, of course, one more point in the shape of the dress of this statue which is against the ordinary fashion of Buddha images, viz., the girdle round the waist. The vestment of the Çrāvastī image is decidedly not the samghāṭi, while those from Gandhara and Bihar, referred to further on, appear to be clad in this garment.

dharmacakramudrā, and which Prof. Grünwedel in his valuable "Handbuch der Buddhistischen Kunst in Indien" (Berlin, 1893, p. 146 ff) has from independent reasons, tried to establish as a characteristic of statues representing not Cākyamuni, but the future Buddha Maitrēya. Maitreya, according to Buddhist Mythology is not a Buddha yet, and I question the correctness of Prof. Grünwedel's words who calls these statues representations of "Maitreya as Buddha." To my mind, it would be more appropriate to speak of them as "statues of Maitreya," and from the result which I have arrived at above, it is extremely probable that the fact that such statues wear the right shoulder uncovered by their vestment, is due to their being representations of a Bodhisattva, in this particular case the Bodhisattva Maitreya. The next point in connexion herewith refers to the Bihar Buddhist statues. Among these, I have met with the type of Buddha with his right shoulder bare only in connection with a peculiar attitude of the hands commonly called "bhūmisparça-mudrā." This holds good almost throughout, as far as I know. Now it is my opinion that this particular attitude where Buddha touches the earth with the top of the fingers of his right hand, while the left lies in his lap, always is intended to depict him as sitting under the Bodhi-tree (which indeed is always represented on such statues), and calling the earth as a witness during his great struggle with Māra. This opinion of mine rests on the fact that in some of the Bihar images belonging to this type the demons of

I There remains of course one doubtful point. Some statues of a different type, representing figures in royal dress, and formerly called "statues of princes," have been explained by Prof. Grünwedel as representations of Maitrēya. How then is this difference in type to be accounted for? I can see no reasonable explanation. My above statement rests on careful examination of the Indian Museum collection of Gandhara sculptures, among which there are about 200 images of Buddhas or Bōdhisattvas, coming partly from Swat, partly from Yūsufzāī (Jamālgarhī, Takht-i-Bāhī, etc.). I have come across only one exception, i.e., a figure seated cross-legged, the right shoulder bare, and the right hand raised in the attitude of teaching. On the base of the statue, a small relievo of the Indrasālaguhā scene is sculptured (see my note in Proceedings, A. S. B., 1898, July, p. 186 ff). My statement referring to the Bihār sculptures also is based on the Indian Museum collection; the number of Buddhist statues among them may be given approximately as 200. Their date, as will be known, is the time of the Pāla Kings of Magadha.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> A fair specimen of this type may be seen in Plate II of this Journal, Vol. LXIII, 1894, Part I. It is a photo-etching of a statue excavated by Dr. G. A. Grierson near Rajgir, the ancient Rājagrha. In the description given by Bābū Çarat Candra Dās on the authority of Lama Sherab Gya-tsho (p. 37) this attitude is called the dhyānī āsana which seems to be wrong. Also the tree above the head of Buddha is wrongly called the Kalpavrkṣa. Other similar statues may be seen in Cunningham, Mahābōdhi, Plate XXIV,D, E, F, and Plate XXVI.

Māra's army are still represented, while on the majority of them no sign of Māra or his warriors is visible. Further it must be noticed that in Sarnath 1 and Ajanta,2 wherever the attack of Māra is represented, Buddha's attitude is exactly the same as in those Bihar images above And this holds good also for Gandhara, where Buddha's attitude in the Māra scenes is always that of bhūmispurça, as called by me above.3 This point again tends towards the same direction. For when Buddha was attacked by Māra, he was not yet a Tathāgata or a Buddha, he was only a Bodhisattva, and wherever the scene is described in Buddhist Literature, he is spoken of by that term. Thus, here again, the right shoulder has been left uncovered, because the artist did not intend to represent the Divine Teacher after he had reached the perfect state of enlightenment, but merely in a preliminary stage, as a Bodhi-The evidence, accordingly, derived from epigraphical as well as sculptural facts, tends to show that wherever we meet with a statue of Buddha which represents him with his right shoulder uncovered, we must consider this a priori as a sign indicating that the image is not meant for a Buddha, but for a Bodhisattva.

But to return to the Inscription, we must now take into consideration the important statement as to the locality where the statue was set up. As we have seen already, the image was erected in Constant i (spelled Constant i), in the Const

<sup>1</sup> See Plates 67, 68 of Dr. Burgess, Ancient Monuments, Part I.

<sup>2</sup> There are two representations of Māra's attack on Buddha in Ajanta. One is a sculpture, figured in Plate LI of Burgess and Fergusson Cave Temples, the other the famous painting, a drawing of which may be seen, e.g., on page 93, woodcut No. 31, of Grünwedel's Handbuch.

<sup>3</sup> But on the specimens seen by me, about 3 or 4 in number, the right shoulder is covered. All of them are, however, very poor with respect to workmanship.

<sup>4</sup> Dr. Hultzsch takes  $k\bar{e}t\bar{a}$  as Pāli form of skt.  $kr\bar{e}t\bar{a}$ , but it is a gerund, corresponding to skt.  $kr\bar{i}tv\bar{a}$ ; its prototype would be  $krayitv\bar{a}$ , and it corresponds to  $kinitv\bar{a}$  in the story of the Avidūrēnidāna (Fansböll, Jātaka, Vol. I, p. 92). I also do not agree with his translation of the words  $K\bar{o}sambakut\bar{i}$  as "the Hall at Kauçāmbī;" see his edition of the Bharhut Inscriptions No. 39, on page 230, Ind. Ant. Vol. XXI, for 1892.

those two buildings is described as Kōsambakuṭī; it is the building mentioned in our Inscription, as has been recognized long ago by General Cunningham. The second building is called gamdhakuṭī, and is referred to directly in the tale of the Avidūrēnidāna (Jātaka, ed. Fansböll, Vol. I, p. 92), where we read that Sudatta (i.e., Anātbapiṇḍika) erected this building in the centre of the park (sō majjhē Dasabalassa gandhakuṭim kārēsi). Further it is stated in the same place, that he also erected 'places to walk, to sleep, and to stay during the day ' for Buddha (camkamaṇa-rattiṭṭhāna-divāṭṭhānāni ca), one of which doubtless was the Bhagavatō camkama, where the statue was set up, according to the Inscription.

It thus is establised beyond doubt that the statue originally was erected in Çrāvastī, and the only point that remains for our discussion is the question whether we are entitled to identify the locality where the statue was discovered by General Cunningham in 1863, i.e., the modern Set-Mahet with the site of the ancient Çrāvastī?

It has been done so by General Cunningham; see his account on Sahet-Mahet, or Çrāvastī, in Arch. Surv. Rep., Vol. I, p. 330 ff., and Vol. XI, p. 78 ff. This identification up to lately, seems to have been generally adopted, and is repeated by Dr. Führer in his List of Antiquarian Remains in the North-West Provinces and Oudh, p. 306. Recently, however, it appears to have come into discredit again. I refer to V. A. Smith's report on the Remains near Kasia in the Gorakhpur District (Allahabad, 1896) where in note 3, p. 4 he states: "I greatly doubt the correctness of the accepted identification of the site of Çrāvastī. I have a strong suspicion that Çrāvastī should be identified with Chārdā, or Chahārdah, in the Bahraich district, about forty miles north-west of Sēt-Mahēt (Sahēt-Mahēt). The latter place, which is commonly reputed to be the site of Çrāvastī, will probably prove to be Sētawya, which was situated eastward from Çrāvastī." It is for this reason that I take up the question here again.

It would be wrong to infer from a statement contained in the diary of the Journey of Hiouen Thsang, that the image discovered by General Cunningham is the same statue which the Chinese pilgrim saw in Çrāvastī. He tells us that (St. Julien, Hiouen Thsang, Vol. I, p. 296) "les bâtiments du Kia-lan (convent) sont complétement ruinés; il n'en reste que les antiques fondements. On ne voit plus qu'une petite maison en briques qui s'élève toute seule au milieu des décombres; elle renferme une statue du Bouddha." Though this description closely agrees with the site where the General found the statue in 1863, yet from what immediately follows in Hiuen Thsang's account, we learn that the statue which he saw, was made of sandel-wood, while Cunningham's

statue is made of stone; and if we compare his account with the narrative of Fa-Hian (p. 75 of Beal's translation), it becomes evident that both refer to the same statue. This was recognized originally also by General Cunningham (see Arch. Surv. Rep., Vol. I, p. 340), but later on, he changed his opinion, and said (Arch. Surv. R., Vol. XI, p. 86): "When Hwen Thsang visited Srāvasti in A.D. 636, he found the Jetavana so completely ruined, that nothing more than the foundations remained. 'One small brick temple containing a statue of Buddha rose alone amid the ruins.' This solitary temple I have identified with No. 3,1 because the Inscription which I found inside dates back to the early period of Indo-Scythian rule. The statue must, therefore, have been enshrined in this temple several centuries before the time of Hwen Thsang; and as I found it inside the temple in 1863, it is certain that it must have been there in A.D. 636, when the Chinese pilgrim visited the Jetavana." This rather bold statement has been accepted without hesitation by Dr. Führer in his List of Antiquarian Remains, p. 310, where he says that "this very statue of colossal size, (i.e., the statue seen by Hiuen Thsang) was found in 1863 by General Cunningham inside a small ruined brick temple." We may, of course, admit an error on Hiuen Thsang's side, but we have no reason whatever to do so. And, on the other hand, the fact that the statue does not seem to have been noticed by Hiuen Thsang, does not appear to me to value much. It may have been buried below the ground as early as in his time, and it may be owing merely to this fact that the statue has still been preserved to us in a country where stone material always, on account of its rarity, has been valued high and greatly demanded, while, on the other hand, further excavations conducted by General Cunningham and Dr. W. Hoey at the same site have been very resultless as to ancient sculptures or inscriptions.

While thus the accounts of the Chinese pilgrims become useless to us in deciding the question whether the image stood at Set-Mahet already at their time or not, we can, on the other hand, not derive an argument against the question at issue from the fact that the statue was made from the same material which was in use at the same time in Mathurā. For, as General Cunningham rightly observes (Arch. Surv. Rep., Vol. I, p. 339), "we know that the sculptor's art was in a very flourishing state at Mathurā during the first centuries of the Christian era" and the same fact holds also good for a number of other ancient sculptures that have come to light in the country around Mathurā. We are perfectly justified in putting all these sculptures,

<sup>1</sup> This refers to Plate XXV, same Volume.

which, by no means, all have been found in Mathurā itself, but some of them at a considerable distance away, together under the class-term of Mathurā sculptures, just as we speak of Gandhara-sculptures, and such a term rests on much stronger grounds than many a similar one introduced by Indian Archæologists. If, indeed, we find a statue with an Inscription, approximately 19 centuries old telling us that the place where the statue was set up, was Çrāvastī and their being no visible signs that the statue has been transported from some other place, such as Inscriptions in later characters, etc., we must primarily infer that the site where it stands is the same place as that mentioned in the Inscription, until by some independent reasons we have come to the conclusion that such an assumption cannot be upheld. Such independent reasons, in our case, would be the distance in miles and the direction according to the horizon, as recorded by the Chinese pilgrims between Çrāvastī and other places visited by them.

The next place to which both Fa-Hian and Hinen Thrang travelled from Crāvastī, is Kapilavāstu, the birth-place of Buddha. place, by the discovery in 1896 of the famous Paderia Edict of Açōka, has been identified beyond doubt with a modern site in the Nepalese Terai to the north of Uska Bazar station. How far its distance from Set-Maliet in English miles is, I am unable to make out with certainty; its direction according to the horizon from Set-Mahet is to the East. The distance recorded by Fa-Hiang between Cravasti and Kapilavastu is about 14 yojanas in a south-easterly direction; 1 Hiuen Thrang gives 500 li in a south-eastern direction as the distance between the kingdom of Crāvastī and the kingdom of Kapilavāstu.2 Both accordingly record the direction as lying to the south-east, while the actual direction between Set-Mahet and Paderia seems to be to the east. The question accordingly is: are we, on account of this discrepancy, justified in assuming that the statue has been brought to the place where General Cunningham found it, from somewhere else, while the actual site of Crāvastī must be searched for somewhere to the north-east of Paderia?

<sup>1</sup> From Çrāvastī to Na-pi-ka, the birth-place of the Buddha Kraku chanda; 12 yōjanas to the south; from this place to Buddha Kaṇakamuni's birth-place (viz., the modern Nigliva in Tahsil Taulehva, Nepal): less than 1 yōjana to the north: from this place to Kapilavāstu: less than one yōjana eastward; see Chapter XXI and XXII (p. 85-86) of Beal's translation.

<sup>2</sup> St. Julien, Vol. I, p. 309 "en partant de ce royaume (i.e., She-lo-fa-si-ti = Çrāvastī), il fit environ cinq cents li au sud-est, et arriva au royaume de Kie-pi-lo-fa-su-tu (Kapilavastu)." I expect that the distance in lis and yōjanas agrees nearly with the actual distance in English miles between Set-Mahet and Paderia, but I have no means to work out this question, and I refrain myself, for this reason, from taking it into consideration. 500 lis or 14 yōjanas both come up approximately to 80 English miles.

To my humble opinion, such an assumption would be very difficult to maintain. Suppose, a pious Buddhist Monk or layman who had got hold of the statue at the place where it was standing previously, desired to make it a gift to some of his co-religionists who were then residing at the place which is now called Set-Mahet. purpose, he removed the statue, 11'8" in height, and of a considerable weight some thirty or even fifty miles. Is it not then entirely in opposition to the usual custom in India that he took all this trouble and, in connexion with it, the considerable expenses upon himself without recording even his name on the statue? Crāvastī in 636 A.D. when Hiuen Thsang visited the place, certainly was already very much devastated, and only few Buddhists were residing there. must have been absolutely depopulated and no one must have been there to claim the possession of the image which even on its size would have excited the religious veneration of an ordinary Hindu or Buddhist, if he was allowed to take the statue away, and nobody dared to object, as it has been done now-a-days hundred of times to Archæologists and Collectors of sculptures for the various Museums. And is it really in accordance with the usual custom in India that, whenever a religious man wants to gain merit by setting up a statue or building up a temple, he utilizes some old broken stone which he has come across with at some distant place? On the contrary, in such a case, no respect whatever for any object of antiquity is shown—a feeling which indeed is entirely new to the ordinary Indian-and the donor rather boasts himself of having made a new statue, however ugly, out of some other piece of venerable antiquity.

These considerations make me inclined to trust the authority of the Inscription on the statue discovered by General Cunningham and to look upon the discrepancy in the direction as recorded by the Chinese pilgrim as a minor point of no considerable importance. There is some more Epigraphical evidence as to the site of the ancient Çrāvastī which I may be permitted to add here, though, unfortunately, it does not help us any further. Çrāvastī is mentioned also in the following Inscriptions:—

- (1) Madhuban Copper-plate Inscription of Harṣavardhana of Kanauj; date Harṣa-samvat 25=631-632 A.D.; Epigr. Indica, Vol. I, p. 72, line 8 ff. of Inscription: Çrāvastī-bhuktau Kuṇḍadhānī-vaiṣayika-Sōmakuṇḍikā-grāma. The plate was discovered in 1888 by a ploughman in a field near Madhuban, Pargana Nathūpur, Distr. A'zamgarh, N.-W. Provinces.
  - (2) Dighwa-Dubauli Copper-plate Inscription of Mahārāja J. 1. 37

Mahēndrapāladēva; date [Harṣa]-samvat 155=761-762 A.D.; Ind. Ant., Vol. XV, 1886, p. 112; line 7 ff. of Inscription: Çrāvastī-bhuktau Çrāvastī-maṇḍal-āntaḥpāti-Vālayikā-viṣaya-sambaddha-Pānīyaka-grāma. The plate is in the possession of a Brahmin in the Saran District, Bihar, but seems to have been brought there from some distant place.

(3) Kaṭak Copper-plate Inscription of the third year of Mahārāja Bhavagupta II.; date 11th century A.D.; Epigr. Ind., Vol. III, p. 357; line 38 ff., of the Inscription mentions a Brahman who had come to Kaṭak from the bhaṭṭa-village Kāsīllī in the Çrāvastī-maṇḍala (Çrāvastī-maṇḍalē Kāsīllī-bhaṭṭagrāma-vinirggatāya).

All these localities, however, mentioned as lying in the mandala or bhukti of Çrāvastī, I have been unable to identify; for that Vālayikā in the Dighwa-Dubauli Inscription (No. 2) may be the modern Ballia in the North-West Provinces, is nothing more than a mere guess. If it is possible to identify those places, they would certainly help to settle the question, but I am unable at present to do this.

To sum up the results of this paper, we learn from the Inscription on the base of the statue discovered by General Cunningham in 1863 at the modern Set-Mahet:—

- (1) that the statue was erected in the last century B.C. or first century A.D., and consequently is one of the oldest Buddhist images found in India;
- (2) that it represents a Bodhisattva, and not a Buddha, this being recognisable also in the shape of the robe leaving the right shoulder naked;
- (3) that, finally, the statue originally was set up in Çrāvastī and that the place where General Cunningham found it, viz., the modern Set-Mahet, has to be considered on the authority of the Inscription as the site of the ancient Çrāvastī, notwithstanding a certain discrepancy in its actual direction from Kapilavāstu (Paderia), as compared with the direction recorded by the Chinese pilgrims Fa Hian and Hiuen Thsang.

A new Inscription of Mahārāja Bhōja I., from Marwar, dated Harṣa Samvat 100.—By Theodor Bloch, Ph. D.

[Read April, 1898].

This Inscription which is edited here for the first time, is engraved on a copper-plate discovered by Dēbīprasād, a Munsif of Jodhpur in Marwar State, Rajputana. It is stated to have come to light some fifty years ago during a heavy rainfall in a village called Sewa, in Pargana Didwana of the Marwar State, where it was lying buried under the earth, and whence it is said to have come to Daulatpur, in the same State; it is now deposited in the Darbar Hall of Jodhpur. I edit the Inscription from impressions kindly supplied to me by Dēbīprasād, Munsif of Jodhpur, who discovered the plate in Daulatpur and arranged for its being deposited in Jodhpur.

Judging from the impressions, the plate measures 1'9" by 1'  $4\frac{1}{2}$ "; its weight is said to be 30 seers. It is inscribed on one side only in characters of exactly the same type as the two Inscriptions of the same dynasty, already known to us, viz., the Dighwa-Dubauli Plate of Mahārāja Mahēndrapāla, and the Bengal Asiatic Society's Plate of Mahārāja Vināyakapāla.2 The average size of the letters is \(\frac{3}{4}\)". The seal, measuring, according to the impression,  $9\frac{1}{2}$ " by  $6\frac{1}{2}$ ", is soldered unto the proper right side of the plate; it resembles in shape exactly the seal of the two other plates, mentioned above. It contains an Inscription, consisting of 10 lines of writing in relievo, above which there is, in an arch, the figure of a standing goddess, doubtless the Bhagavatī mentioned in the Inscription as tutelary deity of Mahārāja Bhōja. same figure is also to be seen in the upper portion of the seal of the Dighwa-Dubauli and Bengal Asiatic Society's Plate. The latter which I had an opportunity to inspect, leaves no doubt that this goddess Bhagavatī is intended for Durgā or Pārvatī, as she is represented

<sup>1</sup> Written विवा and ديدوانه respectively, in the vernacular alphabets.

<sup>2</sup> Edited by Mr. Fleet in Indian Antiquary, Vol. XV, pp. 105 and 138, wit facsimile.

as holding a mirror and water-jar (darpana and kalaça) in two of her left hands, both of which are among the attributes of this goddess.

The language of the Inscription is Sanskrit. With respect to orthography, the same peculiarities re-occur here, as in the Dighwa-Dubauli and Bengal Asiatic Society's Plates; viz, the letter b is everywhere expressed by the sign for v;  $parambhagavat\bar{\imath}$  (or  $parambha^{\circ}$ ) stands for  $paramabhagavat\bar{\imath}$  (in lines e and k of the seal, and lines 4 and 6 of the text);  $samvatsr\bar{o}$ , in the date (line 16), is written for  $samvatsar\bar{a}$  or  $samvatsar\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$ ; ança is written for aniça (in lines 10 and 14).

The Inscription opens with the well-known Genealogical list of Mahārajas from Dēvaçakti down to Bhōja; the same pedigree, in exactly the same words, is repeated on the seal also, and may be seen, too, in the Dighwa-Dubauli and Bengal Asiatic Society's Plates of Mahendrapāla and Vināyakapāla. Thereafter, we learn, that the Mahārāja-Crī-Bhōjadēva, from his victorious camp, pitched up at Mahōdaya (line 1) issued a command to his officials in the village Sivā, belonging to the district (viṣaya) of Dēṇḍvānaka, which lay in the country of Gurjjarattrā (Gurjjarattrā-bhūmau; lines 6 foll.), informing them that a certain Bhatta-Harşuka (line 8) had reported to him, that the above-named village (viz., Sivā-grāma) had been granted by the present King Bhōja's great-grandfather, Mahārāja Vatsarāja, (line 9: parama-dēva-pādānām prapitāmaha, etc.,) to his (sc. Harşuka's) grandfather, Bhaṭṭa Vāsudēva. This Vāsudēva again by a special deed (pratigraha-pattrēna), had made over the sixth part of its revenues to a certain Bhatta Vișnu (line 10). Mahārāja Bhōja's grandfather, the Mahārāja Nāgabhaṭa, confirmed the original grant; but in the reign of the present King Bhōja (dēva-rājyē, line 11), both the original grant ( $c\bar{a}sana$ ) and the record of its being sanctioned by Nāgabhaṭa (anumati) had been lost. The Mahārāja Bhōja, therefore, after he had come to know about the grant, its sanction, and enjoyment, consented that the said village should be enjoyed by the Brahmans, the descendants of Bhatta-Väsudeva, who belonged to the  $K\bar{a}$ çyapa-göttra and were students of the  $\bar{A}$ çval $\bar{a}$ yana-[ç $\bar{a}$ kh $\bar{a}$ ] of the Rgvēda, as well as by the Brahmans, the descendants of Bhatta Viṣṇu, who belonged to the  $K\bar{a}ty\bar{a}yana$ - $g\bar{o}ttra$  and were students of the  $\bar{A}cyal\bar{a}yana$ - $\lceil c\bar{a}kh\bar{a}\rceil$  of the Rg- $v\bar{e}da$ , in the same way as it had been enjoyed before, and as the divison of the shares had been already settled  $(pr\bar{n}g-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bh\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{o}ga-bha\bar{$ kramēņ=aiva yathāmçam, line 14). Then follows a çloka (line 15 ff.) which tells us that the çāsana was drawn up 1 by Prabhāsa, and that

<sup>1</sup> This is the meaning of the word prayukta according to Prof. Bühler's suggestion; see Mr. Fleet's note 9, Ind. Ant., Vol. XV, p. 137. The translation of the first line of the verse accordingly would be: "(This is the writing) of the long-enduring çāsana, drawn up by Prabhāsa."

the Yuvarāja Nāgabhaṭa acted as dūtaka.¹ The date² of the assignment (nibaddha) of the grant is the year 100, the 13th day of the bright half of Phālguna. As in the case of the Dighwa-Dubauli and Bengal Asiatic Society's Plates, the date must be referred to the Harṣa Era, corresponding therefore to 706–707 A.D.

The new information which this Inscription furnishes regarding the history of this family of Mahārājas, is but scanty. It gives us the date Harşa Samvat 100 (= A.D. 706-707) for Mahārāja Bhōja, and mentions the name of a Yuvarāja Nāgabhata who has been left out in the later lists, apparently because he never ascended the throne. Of greater interest, however, are the localities mentioned in the In-The village Sivā, the agrahāra of the Brahmin families descending from Bhaṭṭa-Vāsudēva and Bhaṭṭa-Viṣṇu, is described as lying in the Gurjjarattrā-bhūmi, in the Dēndvānaka-viṣaya. former I am unable to identify; but the latter apparently is identical with the modern Dīdwānā, the name of a town and pargana in Marwar State in Rajputana.3 The place is shown in the map accompanying Webb's Currencies of Rajputana, and also on Plate 27 of Constable's Hand Atlas of India; it is situated midway between Jaypur and Accordingly, the village Sivā must be identical with the modern Sēwā, the place where, if tradition can be trusted, the plate came to light some fifty years ago. The villages granted in the two other Inscriptions of the same dynasty, lay respectively in the modern districts of Faizabad in Oudh, and of Benares; but we now learn that one part at least of the dominions of this family of petty chiefs (Mahārājas) lay also on the other bank of the Jumna, about 500 miles distant from their Zamindāri in Oudh and 700 miles from Benares.

I now edit the Inscription from impressions supplied by Debiprasad:

Text.

## The Seal:

- (a) परमवैषावो महाराजश्रीदेवश्राति-
- (b) देवस्तस्य प्रत्नस्तत्पादानुथ्यातः श्रीभूयिका-
- (c) देखामुत्पनः परममाहेश्वरो महाराज-
- (d) श्रीवत्सराजदेवस्तस्य प्रत्रस्तत्पादानुध्यातः

<sup>1</sup> For other instances of a Yuvarāja acting as dūtaka, see Khalimpur Plate of Dharmapāla (Epigr. Ind., Vol. III, p. 245), and Mungir Plate of Dēvapāla (Ind. Ant., Vol. XXI, p. 258).

<sup>2</sup> Expressed by a symbol, not in numerical figures.

<sup>3</sup> This has been already suggested to me by Debiprasad.

- (e) श्रीमुन्दरीदेखामुत्यनः परंभगवतीमतो¹
- (f) महाराजश्रीनागभटदेवस्तस्य पुत्रस्त-
- (9) त्यादानुध्यातः श्रीमदौसटादेखामुत्यनः पर-
- (h) मादित्यभक्तो महाराजश्रीरामभद्रदेवस्त-
- (i) स्य पुत्तस्तत्पादानुध्यातः श्रीमदणादेवामुत्पनः
- (k) परंभगवतीभक्तो महाराजश्रीभोजदेवः  $[\parallel^*]$

## The Plate:

- (1) च्यां खिल् [॥\*] महोदयसमावासितानेकनौ² इस्यश्वरथपितसम्पद्मस्तान्धा-वारात्परमवैषा-
- (2) वो महाराजश्रीदेवप्रितादेवक्तस्य पुत्रक्तत्पादानुध्यातः श्रीभूयिकादेखा-मुत्पन्नः परम-
- (3) माहेश्वरो महाराजश्रीवत्मराजदेवस्तस्य प्रत्नस्तत्मादानुध्यातः श्रीमुन्दरी-देव्यामुत्पद्मः
- (4) परमागवतीभक्तो<sup>3</sup> महाराजश्रीनागभटदेवक्तस्य प्रत्नक्तत्पादानुध्यातः श्री-मदीसटादे-
- (5) वामुत्पन्नः परमादित्यभक्तो महाराजश्रीरामभद्रदेवस्तस्य प्रत्नस्तत्पादानु-ध्यातः श्री-
- (6) मदप्पादेखामुत्पद्मः परम्भगवतीभक्तो<sup>3</sup> महाराजश्रीभोजदेवः॥ गुर्ज्ञारस्ना-भूमो देगद्वान-
- (7) कविषयसम्बद्ध<sup>4</sup>सिवाग्रामाग्रहारे समुपगतान्सव्वनिव यथास्थाननियुक्तान्प्रनिवासिनञ्च
- (8) समाज्ञापयति । भट्टहर्षुकेन विज्ञपितं । उपरिलिखिताग्रहारसार्व्वायस-मेत त्राचन्त्रार्क्क-

<sup>1</sup> Read परमभगवती॰

<sup>2</sup> The reading and is quite obvious here as also in the Dighwa-Dubauli and
Bengal Asiatic Society's Plates. Mr. Fleet's reading and seems erroneous.

<sup>3</sup> Read परमभगवती॰

<sup>4</sup> Read सम्बद्ध.

- (9) चितिकालं पूर्व्वदत्तदेवब्रह्मादेयवर्ज्जितः परमदेवपादानां प्रिपताम ह-महाराजश्रीवत्स-
- (10) राजदेवेन मत्पितामहभट्टवासुदेवाय श्रासनेन दत्तो भुक्तञ्च [।\*] तेन चास्य षष्ठानश्चो² भट्टविषावे प्र-
- (11) तिग्रहपत्नेग दत्तः [।\*] पितामह महाराजश्रीनागभटदेवेनानुमित-ईत्ता [।\*] देवराच्ये तु तच्छासनमनुम-
- (12) तिस्र विगतिमुपगतेति द्रस्यं विज्ञिपतं श्रासनमनुभतिप्रतिग्रहपत्तं भोगस्र ज्ञात्वा मया पित्रोः पुर्ण्याभि-
- (13) रुद्धये काम्यपसगोत्ताश्वलायनवत्त्वृचसत्रह्मचारि भट्टवासुदेवान्वयजत्राह्म-यानां कात्यायनसगोत्त्राश्व-
- (14) लायनवह्नुचसत्रह्मचारि भट्टविष्यवन्वयजत्राह्मणानाञ्च प्राग्भोगक्रमेणेव यथान्यम<sup>7</sup>नुमोदित इति विदित्वा
- (15) भवद्भिस्तमनुमन्तथः [।\*] प्रतिवासिभिरप्याज्ञाश्रवणविधेयैःभूत्वा<sup>8</sup> सर्वा-या एषां समुपनेया इति ॥ प्रभासेन<sup>9</sup> प्रयुक्ति]-
- (16) स्य ग्रासनस्य स्थिरायतेः। श्रीमान्नागभटो ना[मा] युवराजोच दूतकः॥ सम्बद्धो १००११ फालगुनसुदि १०११ विद्धं १॥

- Read षष्टांशो .
- 3 Read •गतेत्येतदित्यं.
- This ought to be either अनुमतिप्रतिग्रसपने or अनुमति प्रतिग्रहपनं.
- <sup>5</sup> Read ॰बकृचसत्रह्मचारि.
- 6 Read त्रह्मणानां .
- र Read यथांश्म .
- 8 Read विधेयक्रूला.
- 9 Metre Anustubh.
- 10 Read संवत्सरा or संवत्सराणां
- Il Expressed by a symbol.
- 12 Read निवदं.

l Read ब्रह्म.

The Memoirs of Bāyazīd (Bajazet) Bīyāt.—By H. BEVERIDGE, Esq., I.C.S. (retired).

[Read November, 1898.]

This work, which is still in manuscript, owes its origin to the Emperor Akbar. We learn from the introduction to the Akbarnāma that when Abū'l-fazl undertook, under Akbar's orders, to write the history of the emperor's reign, considerable pains were taken to collect the necessary materials. Among other things inquiries were made among members of the royal family and old servants of the Court, and all who had knowledge of past events were directed to put their recollections into writing. It was in obedience to this order that Bāyazīd Biyāt, who was then holding an office in Akbar's kitchen, dictated his memoirs to a clerk of Abū'l-fazl. The same order produced the charming memoirs of Princess Gulbadan, Akbar's aunt, and apparently also those of Jauhar, the ewer-bearer. There is a copy of Bāyazīd's Memoirs in the India Office, MS. No. 216. Erskine's copy, and is the one which I have used for this article. Major Raverty had another copy which he quotes in his Notes on Afghānistān, but which, he informs me, is no longer in his possession. I hope that other copies may turn up, and also that some scholar will one day undertake the editing of the text. If any one undertake the task, he will do well to consult MS. Additional 26,610 of the British This is a nearly complete translation of the Memoirs by Mr. Erskine, and which might almost be printed as it stands.

Bāyazīd Biyāt belonged to a Turkish tribe, but was a native of Persia and was brought up in Tabrīz. This appears from p. 77b where we are told that 'Alī Qulī Shaibānī (Khān Zamān) was a neighbour of Bāyazīd's in Tabrīz when he was little, and also from p. 102a where it is stated that Bāyazīd grew up with 'Ali Qulī in the Āwa quarter of Tabrīz. Bāyazīd was the younger brother of Shāh Bardī Bīyāt, the saint and poet, who forsook the profession of arms to become a water-carrier and whose tomb is at Bardwān.

<sup>1</sup> See Professor Blochmann's article on Bahrām Saqqā, the name assumed by Shāh Bardī, in the J. A. S. B. for 1871, vol. 40, p. 281.

Bāyazīd dictated his memoirs at Lāhor in 999 (1590-91). He was then an old man, and though still in service,—he was Bakāwal Bēgī, or Steward of the kitchen,—he had had a paralytic stroke and was unable to write with his own hand. The facts that he was old and frail and that he had to dictate his recollections from memory account for their rambling character and for the inconsecutive style of the sentences. The Memoirs contain much valuable information, and in particular they give elaborate lists of Humāyūn's followers. are also occasionally picturesque, as for instance, in the detailed account of the meeting between the two brothers, Humāyūn and Kāmrān, after the latter had been blinded, but as a whole they are badly written and less interesting than the memoirs of Jauhar. They are styled on the fly-leaf of the MS. Tārīkh-i-Humāyūn, but this title is not given by the author, who speaks of them only as a mukhtasar or abridgement, and it is not an adequate description of the contents, for the latter part of them is taken up with events They begin with Humāyūn's flight into of the reign of Akbar. Persia in 1543 and come down to the time of writing (1590-91). Abū'l-fazl has evidently used them a good deal, though he nowhere expressly mentions them, and they are frequently quoted by Erskine in his valuable history of Humāyūn's reign. Bāyazīd tells us that nine contemporaneous copies of his book were made, two of which went into Abū'l-fazl's library. I hope that some of them will be found one day in India. Bāyazīd's name occurs in the  $\bar{A}\bar{\imath}n$  under the title of Bāyazīd Bēg Turkmān as a commander of three hundred (Blochmann's translation, p. 501), and his son Iftikhār is mentioned lower down (p. 516), as belonging to the class of commanders of two hundred.

The Memoirs begin with Humāyūn's arrival in Sīstān, and describe his journey to Harāt, and contain a copy of the elaborate despatch on which Shāh Tahmāsp gave directions to the governor of that city for Humāyūn's reception and entertainment. Bāyazīd, however, did not meet with Humāyūn, till the latter had joined the king of Persia at Zangān, and had gone hunting with him at Solomon's Throne (Takht-i-Sulaimān), south of the Caspian. After mentioning (at p. 11b) his own presence at the feasts and hunts, Bāyazīd tells us that when Humāyūn took leave of Shāh Tahmāsp and proceeded towards Tabrīz, he himself was in the service of His Holiness Saiyid Muḥammad 'Arab, the Shāh's Imām or chaplain, who had been entrusted that year with the conveyance of the royal donative to the shrine of Imām Rizā at Maṣhhad. Apparently when Humāyūn went westward, Bāyazīd proceeded on the opposite direction towards Maṣhhad, for he was there

with his father when Humāyūn arrived on the first Shawwāl 951, (16th December, 1544). It was the day of the 'Idu-l-fitr or the breaking of the fast of the Ramazān, but the weather had been so bad from rain and snow that the people of Mashhad had not been able to see the Humāyūn, however, was able to satisfy the Qāzī that he had seen the moon when crossing the Zaqī 1 Pass on the previous evening and so after 9 A.M. all the inhabitants proceeded to the 'Idgah. Humayun stayed several days in Mashhad, putting up in an upper room (bālākhāna) behind Imām Rizā's dome. One night he circumambulated the shrine and visited the tombs of the poet Mir 'Ali Shēr and others, and in his zeal insisted upon acting as a servant of the shrine and on snuffing the lamps. This incident is also mentioned by Jauhar, (Stewart's translation, p. 60), but is referred by him to Humāyūn's first visit to Mashhad. Perhaps Humāyūn performed the ceremony twice. From Mashhad Humāyūn proceeded towards Afghānistān, and joined the Persian army on the banks of the Hilmand. He sent a force to take the castle of Bast, on the Hilmand near the junction of the Arghandab, and Bayazid went with it, though apparently not in any official capacity. From Bast, Humāyūn went to Qandahār and besieged it for some months. Bāyazīd was here also, and accompanied Bairām Khān on his embassy to Kābul. On the way they were attacked by the Hazāras, and Bāyazīd records the feat of Muḥammadī Mīrzā, a grandson of Jahan Shah, the last king of the Turkmans of the Black Sheep. Muḥammadī was on a horse which had been sent by Tahmāsp as a present to Sulaiman, the ruler of Badakhshan, and he leapt with it a ditch which was eighteen cubits wide, in order to attack a Hazāra archer who had wounded several of the king's troopers. He killed him, but not before the archer had discharged his arrow and wounded the horse on the chest. Notwithstanding the wound, the horse carried Muḥammadī for ten miles further and then dropped. Here Bāyazīd incidentally mentions that the famous Bairām Khān, whom he styles Baharlū, claimed to be descended from the same family as Muḥammadī. At Kābul, Bāyazīd saw the child Akbar, who was then living with his grand-aunt Khānzāda Bēgam, and heard Māham Bēgha say, that he was born in 949 (the 946 of text must be a mistake), that he was then 3\frac{1}{2} years old, and that this date had also been written up in Kābul by his Majesty Humāyūn.

The embassy returned to Qandahār after about two months, and apparently Bāyazīd did not return with it, but joined his brother

I I cannot find this name on the map, though there is a place Zarkī marked N. of Mashhad. Probably the pass was to the west of Mashhad on the way from Nīshāpūr.

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Bahrām Saqqā who had not then become a darvesh and was in Gardiz, 65 miles S.-E. Kābul, in the service of Mīrzā Kāmrān. Later on, p. 19a, Bāyazīd tells us that Kāmrān took Gardīz, Naghaz, and Bangash from his brother Shāh Bardī and gave them to Khizr Khān Hazāra with instructions to guard the line of march from Qandahār and Ghaznī. Shāh Bardī alias Bahrām Saqqā received in exchange the districts of Ghūrband (N.-W. Kābul), Zohāk and Bāmīān, but when he came to pay his respects to Kāmrān on his way thither, Kāmrān requested him to put off his journey to Ghūrband till the affairs of the army had been settled. So Bahrām and his brother Bāyazīd stayed at Kābul till Kāmrān had reviewed his troops and till the arrival of Humāyūn. This was followed by the desertion of all Kāmrān's officers. Bardi was one of them and joined Humāyūn along with the famous Bāpūs Bēg and with Bāyazīd. Humāyūn entered Kābul on the 10th Ramazān<sup>1</sup> 952, (16th November, 1545), and had the pleasure of meeting again his wives and sisters, and his little son Akbar. Bāyazīd records that Muayyid Bēg Dūldai Barlās died only a week after the taking of Kābul, and that this was the cause of universal joy, every body saying that he was the Satan of mankind, and was the cause of Humāyūn's losing India, and that now there was hope that Humāyūn would recover that country. This is the same Muayyid who was so brutal as to cut off the hands of about 2,000 men who formed the garrison of Cunar and had capitulated.2 Bayazid is charitable enough to express the hope that Munkir and Nakīr, the two angels who question the departed, may not have been so severe on Muayyid as were his fellow-men. In the spring of 1546, Maryam-makānī, Akbar's mother, arrived from Qandahār and the circumcision of Akbar, then between four and five years old, was celebrated in March of that year with great splendour, the city being illuminated, &c. for forty days. It was on the occasion of this āīnbandī or festival that Bāyazīd's brother, Shāh Bardī, came under a spell,3 or was drawn to religion so forcibly that he gave up his profession of a soldier and became a water-carrier under the

<sup>1</sup> There is, as Erskine observes, Hist. II. 325, a discrepancy about this date, but he seems wrong in saying that Bāyazīd gives the year as 953. His own copy has 952; and that this is correct appears from the statement on p. 224, that the festivities at Kābul took place in the beginning of 953.

<sup>2</sup> The statement that Muayyid was the cause of Humāyūn's losing India is corroborated by Jauhar, (pp. 15 and 16 of Stewart), who says that it was owing to Muayyid's advice that Humāyūn crossed to the south-west of the Ganges, a step which led to the disaster of Causā.

<sup>3</sup> Memoirs p. 19a jazaba rasīda lit., an attraction or drawing occurred. There is another reference to this brother at p. 98a.

name of Bahrām Saqqā. His brother adds that he composed a  $d\bar{\imath}w\bar{a}n$  or collection of poems which has been acceptable to all, both the elect and the general public, and that he went off to Turkistān, reciting, or making a rosary of  $(tasb\bar{\imath}h\ num\bar{u}da^{\dagger})$  the Persian  $d\bar{\imath}w\bar{a}n$  of Shāh Qāsim Anwar,<sup>2</sup> and the Turki  $d\bar{\imath}w\bar{a}n$  of Shāh Nasīmi.<sup>3</sup> We shall hear of him again as a water-carrier in the streets of Agra.

After some days of feasting the royal party went to visit Khwāja Rēg-rawān, the site of the moving sand, and there the princes engaged in wrestling-bouts. Humāyūn wrestled with Imām Qulī Qūrcī, and Mīrzā Hindāl with his cousin Mīrzā Yādgār Nāṣir. After that they went to Khwāja Sih Yārān, the Place of the Three Friends (Jarrett's Āīn II, 409 n), to admire the arghawān tree blossoms of the Dāman-i-kōh. About this time Caghatāī Sultān who was a Mughul prince of great promise and an universal favourite died, and one Mīr Amānī made a pretty chronogram about him. After describing him as a rose and saying that in the season of the rose he meditated a journey, the verses wind up thus:—

"I sought the date from the bereaved nightingale and she said weeping, the rose has gone out of the garden" (gul az  $b\bar{a}gh$   $b\bar{i}r\bar{u}n$   $\underline{sh}ud$ ). Here if we take 50, the numerical value of gul, from 1003, the value of  $b\bar{a}gh$ , we get the date 953.4 With this, Bāyazīd ends the first chapter of his memoirs.

The next opens with an account of the trial and execution of Mīrzā Yādgār Nāṣir which took place in the end of 953, (January 1547). It seems that a regular indictment was preferred, consisting of nearly thirty articles. One of them went as far back as the taking of Cāmpānīr in 1535 and was as follows:—"On the taking of the Fort of Cāmpānīr we (Humāyūn) had come into the treasury and had commanded that no one, unless sent for, should come to the treasury-door, but you came without orders and sent your respects through a bakāwal (Steward) who had brought us a special dish of soup. We left coins of all sorts on the tray and sent soup to you, and you had

<sup>1</sup> Perhaps tasbī' making a seven fold copy.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> A native of Tabrīz which may account for Bahrām's attachment to his poetry. He was a mystic poet and died 837 A.H. or 1434 near Harāt. There is a good account of him in Beale's Oriental Dictionary, but the date of his death there given seems wrong.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> See Professor Browne on the Ḥanafī sect in J. R. A. S., January, 1898, pp. 62 and 67. Nasīmī was put to death for heterodoxy at Aleppo in 820 (1417). Nasīmī is a district near Baghdād. The poet's real name was Saiyid 'Imādu-d-dīn. See Rieu's Catalogue of Turkish MSS. 165a.

<sup>4</sup> Badāonī has a similar chronogram on the death of Bairām. Lowe's translation, p. 41.

<sup>1</sup> Probably the tray (<u>kh</u>wān) here meant is that containing the food or soup, and the insolence consisted in the rejection of what the king had sent, and n making over the coins to a servant.

received, and describes the entertainment which followed. There is also a description of this meeting in Princess Gulbadan's Memoirs. One story which Bayazid tells is about a conversation during the festival between Husain Quli Sultan, the keeper of the seal, and Kāmrān. There was various discourse, he says, and Ḥusain Qulī told Kāmrān it was reported that at a meeting held by 'Ubaidu-l-lāh Khān, the question had been put whether a man who had not in his heart hatred to 'Alī as big as an orange, could be called a Musulmān; that afterwards this subject had been brought up again in a meeting at which Kāmrān was present and that Kāmrān was reported to have remarked that it behoved a servant of God to have such a hatred as big as a pumpkin. Kāmrān was indignant at Ḥusain Quli's remarks and asked him if he took him for a heretic. To this the other replied that he was only repeating what he had heard, and that the recital of an infidel's language did not make the repeater an infidel. the Uzbaks were strong Sunnis it is not unlikely that the question was really put, and as Kāmrān was a Sunnī or at least was desirous of pleasing the Sunnis and had married into an Uzbak family it is likely enough that he improved upon the question in the manner stated. This story is one of those which Abū'l-fazl has borrowed from Bāyazīd.1

The entertainment lasted for three days and was followed by a council meeting in which the propriety of making an attack on Balkh was discussed. It does not appear that Kāmrān was present at this council, or that he was invited to express his opinion about the expedition. Very probably he was not asked for he himself had been a supplicant to the ruler of Balkh and had obtained some assistance from him in his contests with his brother.

It is suggested by Erskine that the help which the Uzbak chief had given to Kāmrān was one of the motives for the attack on Balkh. There was considerable difference of opinion among the councillors, and in the end it was resolved that they should all march south to Nāran where the roads to Balkh and Kābul separated and that they should there decide what they should do. On the way Humāyūn turned off to visit the fountain of Band Kushā near Ishkamish (in Badakhshān and E.-S.-E. of Kundūz. On the map there is a place marked Cashma (spring or of fountain) about 7 miles N. E. of Ishkamish). There he sent for the blacksmiths and bade them prepare an iron pen, saying that when his Majesty his father Bābar returned

It is also told by Shāh Tahmāsp in his Memoirs. See Teufel's paper in Z. D. M. G. and Paul Horn's trs. Strassburg 1892, p. 37. But Mr. Horn has erroneously made the orange a pomegranate. See Text, Z. D. M. G., Vol. 46, p. 59b.

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from Samarqand, he had written the date and the number of his companions, and that it was proper he should make a similar record. So he engraved the date, &c., with his own blessed hand. Abū'l-fazl lalso tells this story, (Akbarnāma I, 282), and says that the occasion of Bābar's putting up the inscription was the submission to him of his brothers, Khān Mīrzā and Jahāngīr. It was, he says, in accordance with this precedent that Humāyūn engraved the inscription, for his brothers, Kāmrān and 'Askarī, had just been reconciled to him and performed homage. But I have been unable to find the passage in Bābar's Memoirs. At p. 101 of these Memoirs Bābar records the cutting of an inscription near a spring, but this was in the neighbourhood of Farghāna, and again at p. 233 there is a reference to the cutting of an inscription, but this too is not the Ishkamish one. If Abū'l-fazl's statement is correct, he must, I think, have got it from some other source than the Memoirs.

It does not appear that there was any fresh discussion at Nāran about going to Balkh, it having already been decided apparently that the expedition should not take place that year. At Nāran therefore the brothers separated, and Kāmrān received Kūlāb as his fief. Humāyūn went on to Parīān where he repaired the fort constructed by his ancestor Timur. From Parian he paid a visit to some silver He sent for miners and had an experimental working made but found that the produce would not repay the cost of excavation. After this he resumed his march to Kābul, and on coming to the Ushtarkarām (?) pass he lost his way. The servants who were ahead went to find out the road but could not. At last a man was seen going along on foot. He was hailed and asked his name (p. 41b). "A servant of God," he replied. "We are all servants of God," rejoined Humāyūn, "tell us your real name." My name is "Khāk" (earth), replied the man. Humāyūn on this said, "What is your proper name? what sense is there in the word  $\underline{kh}\bar{a}k$ ?" He then replied, "Then call me what you like." Humāyūn who had been already put out by losing his road, now got very angry and said, "Shall I call you a kite or a muck-rake (Gūh dalāl)?" "During the five or six years," says Bāyazīd, "that I had been in attendance on him, I had never seen him so put out before." After this colloquy the man became their guide and brought them to the village of Ushtarkarām. spent the following winter in Kābul and then set out early in the spring of 1549 on the expedition against Balkh.

<sup>1</sup> The visit of the four brothers to the fountains is also mentioned by Jauhar, Stewart, p. 92.

It is strange what a fascination Central Asia seems to have possessed for Bābar and his descendants. We find Bābar spending the best years of his life in fruitless attempts to regain possession of Farghāna and to establish himself in Samarqand, and now we find his sons engaged in the same bootless warfare, and neglecting the far more promising field of India. A war against the Uzbaks seems to have been to this family what a campaign against the Persians was to the Greeks, or a crusade to the European nations in the Middle Ages. Humāyūn made his attack in company with his brother Hindāl and his cousin Sulaimān. Kāmrān and 'Askarī sent word that they would come, but they failed to put in an appearance. Kāmrān indeed took advantage of Humāyūn's absence on this expedition to capture Kābul for the second time.

We are told by Bāyazīd, (p. 94b), that Sulaimān of Badakhshān fought 72 battles with the Uzbaks, and was always successful, but if so he was the only Timuride who ever got the better of them. And he too eventually found that the Uzbaks were too strong for him, for he lost his son Mīrzā Ibrāhīm, who was made prisoner by the Uzbaks in one of his father's expeditions and was taken to Balkh and put to death there. And Sulaiman himself was eventually driven out of Badakhshān in his old age and forced to take refuge with Akbar. Where Babar had failed, even with the powerful help of the king of Persia, it was not likely that his unstable son Humāyūn should succeed. His campaign against Balkh ended in disastrous failure, and his sufferings during the retreat remind us of those experienced by his father when he fled from Samarqand after having been driven out by Bāyazīd was present in the campaign and was now Shaibānī Khān. a direct servant of Humāyūn, having begun his career as a servant of Jalālu-d-dīn Mahmūd of Aubāh, the king's butler, and having afterwards served Husain Quli, the keeper of the seal.

As Humāyūn was marching towards Aibak, one of his followers shot a leopard. The seal-bearer remarked that this was a bad omen, and cited the instance of the Uzbaks who on account of a similar occurrence had once put off an expedition to Khurāsān. But Humāyūn got over the argument by observing that the Uzbaks were his enemies and that so what was a bad sign for them was a good one for him. Aibak was taken after a short resistance and Khwāja Bāgh, the guardian of Pīr Muḥammad, the ruler of Balkh, was made prisoner. Humāyūn took the singular step of asking the Khwāja how he should proceed in order to be successful in his expedition against Balkh. The Khwāja naturally replied that he was an enemy and so his opinion should not be taken, but Humāyūn persisted, saying, that the Uzbaks were honest men and

would tell the truth, and that the Khwāja was the most honest of his countrymen. On this Khwāja Bāgh gave him the disinterested advice to cut off the heads of all his prisoners including himself. Humāyūn's answer was that they were all Musulmāns and that he could not put to death so many of his co-religionists. The Khwāja then proposed a treaty with Pīr Muḥammad, but Humāyūn also rejected this suggestion. He then continued his march viā Khulm to Balkh. At first his enterprise seemed likely to be successful, but his soldiers got discouraged by the continued absence of Kāmrān and apprehended that Kāmrān would attack Kābul in their absence, and get possession of their families who had been left behind in that city. So when victory was apparently within their grasp the invaders retreated southwards to Dera Gaz. The attempt to execute a change of position in the face of an enemy had the same disastrous effect that followed a similar manœuvre before the battle of Qanauj. The retreat became a flight, and Humāyūn had much difficulty in effecting his escape. The hardships he encountered on the way back to Kābul are minutely described by Bāyazīd, but he has not the descriptive power of Bābar or even of Jauhar, and he seems too anxious to magnify his own performances. As Erskine remarks in his MS. translation, (p. 47), Bāyazīd is much the hero of his own tale. One extract, p. 49b, may however be given.

"When we came to the foot of the Sih Paj Pass, which is one

"When we came to the foot of the Sih Paj Pass, which is one of the passes in the Hindū Kush, his Majesty halted and said that for some days he had not slept. He then laid his blessed head on Mādar¹ Sultān's knees and told him to sing him to sleep by repeating anything he knew. Mādar begged that Bāyazīd might be ordered to join his voice, and Bāyazīd did so. As his Majesty had represented that he was hungry, Bāyazīd endeavoured to get him some food. There was a shield which had been cast aside as out of repair. It had a steel boss and Bāyazīd made ready on it some horse-flesh and a stew and presented it to his Majesty when he awoke. He partook of it and often said afterwards in Kābul that he had never eaten anything so delicious as that dish (āsh)." Humāyūn returned to Kābul on 1st Ramazān, 956, (23rd September, 1549), in time to save the city from being taken by Kāmrān. With this event Bāyazīd concludes the second chapter of his Memoirs.

The third chapter begins with an account of the defeat of Humāyūn by Kāmrān in the Qipcāq Valley. Humāyūn was wounded in this engagement and had to retire to the hills, while Kāmrān followed

l Erskine renders this "mother of Sulgan," but it is hardly likely that any women were with the party.

up his success by taking Kābul which now fell into his possession for the third time.

The next event recorded is the negotiation for Humāyūn's marriage with Shāhzāda Khānam, the daughter of Mīrzā Sulaimān of The story is told at wearisome length, the only interest in it being the revelation of the haughty and masterful character of Haram (or Khānam) Bēgam, the wife of Sulaimān. She was indignant that persons of such inferior rank as Khwāja Jalālu-d-din and Bibī Fātima should be sent to demand the hand of her daughter, and tauntingly told Fātima that her business in Kābul was the enticing away of "Did you think of getting my daughter in that men's daughters. way?" she said. "Why has none of the Begams or Aghacas come; if my daughter's name is not great, the reputation of his Majesty the king is great." Haram became mollified after a while and sent a message to Humāyūn that she would be proud to give him her daughter if he came for her. Presumably the marriage never took place for we hear no more of it, and the fact that Haram's son Ibrāhīm was afterwards married to Humāyūn's daughter, Bakhshī Bānū, would surely prevent a marriage between Humāyūn and Ibrāhīm's sister. Ḥaram in her message to Humāyūn spoke of his traversing the defiles of the Hindū Kush and this leads Bāyazīd to observe (p. 59a) that the name of these mountains was changed to Hindū Kōh by Akbar in 994, (1586), because he perceived that the range extended from the limits of Bengal to the borders of Tabriz, and because the shrines of Tabriz saints are to be found on its slopes.1

After this comes the account of the night attack by Kāmrān on Humāyūn's camp and the death of Mīrzā Hindāl. Bāyazīd records the cynical remark made by Mun'im Khān upon this event. Coming up to Humāyūn, he inquired why he was weeping. "Because I have heard that Mīrzā Hindāl has been martyred," replied Humāyūn. "You lament your own good," said Mun'im, "you have one enemy less." Upon this his Majesty stinted his tears. Hindāl's death took place in 958, (1551), and the word "Shabkhūn," (night attack) gives the chronogram. Here Bāyazīd digresses to tell a story about Akbar, belonging to this year. The young prince was having his lessons with the son of Mullā Ḥisāmu-d-dīn, a famous doctor of Samarqand, in a tent in his mother's

I Bāyazīd adds a "God knows," to this rather unintelligible explanation. There are Tombs of Tabrīz Saints in India, e. g., of Jalālu-d-din at Pandūa, in the Maldā district. Akbar may have thought of him because his own name was Jalālu-d-din and may have thought that by calling the range Hindū-Kōh he was grounding a claim to it. At all events, this fact that he invented the name Hindū-kōh is interesting.

garden. Mun'im came there to pay his respects, and the child put up his foster-brother, Adham Kōka to ask for a holiday. Mun'im made the desired request to the teacher, and as he was then prime minister and all-powerful, the tutor at once gave Akbar his liberty. This came to Humāyūn's ears and next day when Shamsu-d-dīn Atka brought Akbar to salute his father, Humāyūn observed to the child, "Yesterday you got Ḥājī Muḥammad Sultān to ask your teacher to set you free, do not such a thing again." When the prince had gone back to his school, Humāyūn turned to Mun'im Khān and said "I heard that you got him the holiday, but I mentioned the name of Ḥājī Muḥammad to my son because he is yet young and possibly it might remain in his heart 'Mun'im Khān got me a holiday, and then told the king' and this might lead to your harm some day when I am no longer here. As for Ḥājī Muḥammad, he is a man without any decency and so deserves any harm that may come to him."

Bāyazīd adds that he heard this story in Jaunpūr in 978 (1570-71) when Mun'im Khān was Khān-khānān.

Bāyazīd describes the blinding of Kāmrān but he was not present

Bāyazīd describes the blinding of Kāmrān but he was not present on the occasion and his narrative is by no means so detailed as that of Jauhar. He, however, gives a most affecting description of the interview between the two brothers afterwards when they met at midnight, and the blind Kāmrān was led out as far as the tent-ropes to meet Humāyūn. But it has been so well translated in Erskine's to meet Humāyūn. But it has been so well translated in Erskine's History (II, 416), that it is unnecessary to repeat the account. I shall only remark that what Kāmrān said to the bystanders after acknowledging that his misfortunes were due to his own fault is somewhat different in Bāyazīd from Mr. Erskine's rendering. According to the latter, Kāmrān said, "If it be known that his Majesty has shown favour to me, let it also be known how little I have deserved it." Apparently what Kāmrān said was, (Bāyazīd 64b) "If people consider that his Majesty has dealt kindly by me, I attest the fact." (man sijil kardam). Mun'im Khān was now appointed guardian of Akbar. He took him to Jūī Shāhī, which is the old name of Jalālābād. The Jalālābād fort was built by Mun'im Khān and received its name in The Jalālābād fort was built by Mun'im Khān and received its name in compliment to Akbar, (one of whose names was Jalālu-d-dīn), and who got Jūī Shahī as his appanage in succession to his uncle Hindāl, whose daughter also he married. Bāyazīd gives the chronogram of the building of Jalālābād, which also served, with the addition of one letter, for the date of the building of the Jaunpūr bridge ten years later. One Qāsim Arslān was the composer of the chronograms but they do not seem to be correctly given in the MS. Apparently they should run Bānīy-i-ō ān Mun'im Khān, and Bānīy-i-ō īn Mun'im Khān which would give respectively 972 and 982.

Bāyazīd was now in the service of Jalālu-d-dīn Maḥmūd of Aubah, as his sāmān or butler and he relates how Jalālu-d-dīn sent him from Kābul to Jalālābād with a quantity of ice, grapes, riwāj, lemonade and sugar-candy, as a present to Akbar. In spite of the heat of Jalālābād, he says, the ice arrived intact as the box had bran in it and was wrapt in felt. Akbar was highly delighted with the ice, ate a portion, and had some put into his water bottle, and also distributed it to his officers. He then questioned Bayazid about public affairs. Bayazid had brought a letter from Jalālu-d-dīn in which he asked where Akbar would take up his quarters when he came to Kābul. Akbar asked Bāyazīd what season it was in Kābul, and when he replied that the white roses were in bloom in the Shāh Ārāī garden, Akbar ordered that his dinner should be prepared in that place. Afterwards Akbar proceeded to the Bāgh Wafā at Adānīpar, which was a famous garden made by his grandfather, and again questioned Bāyazīd about public affairs, and about Balkh and Samarqand. He wrote a reply to Jalalu-d-din and Bāyazīd went off in the evening with it to Kābul. He travelled with great expedition for he arrived next day on the Shab-i-barāt, (6th August, 1552), before the people had lighted up for the festival. This was good going as the distance (from Adanipur) is about 180 miles and he tells us that old soldiers were astonished at his coming so quickly. He was alone too, and the roads were bad. He now gives a cook's chronicle of how he prepared dinner for Akbar in the Awarta Bāgh (? middle garden) and how Akbar arrived next day at noon and was regaled by him with pheasants' wings (qūl-i-qairgha) and how the prince sent the remainder of the birds to the Begams.

At p. 69b. Bāyazīd incidentally mentions that Mun'im Khān's father, Mīram Bēg, was guardian of Mīrzā 'Askarī, and had charge of Qandahār, and that on the occasion of an attack by the Hazāras he sacrificed his own life in order to let the prince escape. This is a valuable supplement to Blochmann's account of Mun'im Khān which says (p. 317) that nothing appears to be known of the circumstances of Mun'im's father, Mīram (or Bairām) Bēg.

At p. 72a we have it recorded that in the spring of 960, (1553), two sons were born to Humāyūn in one month. One was Muḥammad Ḥakīm, who was afterwards ruler of Kābul, and whose mother was Cūcak Bēgam, and the other was Muḥammad Farkh Fāl whose mother was Khānish, the daughter of Cacaq Mīrzā of Khwārizm, but who only survived for a few days.

The fourth chapter of the Memoirs commences with a very full list of the officers who accompanied Humāyūn, Akbar, and Bairām to India.

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From p. 77b we learn that Bāyazīd left without notice the service of Khwāja Jalālu-d-dīn on account of some injury which he received from the Khwāja's brother. He went to Bangash where 'Alī Qulī Shaibānī was, whom he had known in his childhood at Tabrīz, but eventually he proceeded to Kābul and became the servant of Mun'im Khān. The brother of the Khwāja here referred to was Jalālu-d-dīn Mas'ūd who was afterwards put to death along with his elder brother, by Mun'im Khān. See Ma'āṣiru-l-umarā I. 617.

For several pages after this the Memoirs are occupied with an account of the siege of Kābul by Sulaimān Mīrzā of Badakhshān, and his son Ibrāhīm. It seems that on Humāyūn's death Sulaimān considered that as the oldest member of the great Timur's family he was entitled to a share in Humāyūn's dominions. Bāyazīd, according to his own account, took a prominent part in repelling the attack, and was wounded by an arrow. Sulaiman did not take the town, but a compromise was made whereby his Imām was allowed to read the khutba in his name for one day in Kābul.2

At p. 87b we are told that Mun'im Khān came out of Kābul as soon as the siege was over and proceeded towards Bāgh-dīh-afghānān. On the way—in front of the royal baths—he met Khwāja Mīrakī, the dīwān of Maryam-makāni, who had stayed outside during the siege and had sided with Mīrzā Sulaimān. Mun'im at once had him pulled off his horse and hanged at the door (ishak) of a costermonger's shop. The interest of this entry lies in the fact that Khwāja Mīrakī was the grandfather of Nizāmu-d-dīn the historian.

P. 88a tells that Sultan 'Adili, the successor of Sikandar, died near Allāhābād, and that the famous Hēmū vowed to God that if he defeated the Mughuls he would become a Musulman. On the next page Bayazid expresses his satisfaction that God erased from the infidel's heart the recollection of this vow after he had defeated Tardi Beg. As the glory of Timūr, he says, had descended to Humāyūn, and then been transferred to Akbar, God, on the field of Pānīpat, put forgetfulness of his vow into Hēmū's heart. The same page describes how Bairām Khān put Tardī Bēg to death. He had an old grudge against him, and used his defeat by Hēmū as a pretext for assassinating him. He sent for him, we are told, to his own house, then left the room on pretence of a necessary purpose, and sent in men who put Tardi Beg to death on the carpeted floor of the diwankhana. A few pages further on (92a) we are told that the reason for Bairām's dislike of Tardī Bēg

<sup>1</sup> Blochmann calls him the son of Jalalu-d-din Mahmud, 384.

<sup>2</sup> The account by Nizāmu-d-dīn, Elliot V, 249, may be compared with this.

was that when they were in India together before Humāyūn's expulsion, Bairām, then only Bairām Bēg and the Muhrdār (seal-keeper), had wanted to sit on the same carpet  $(z\bar{u}lca)$  with Tardī Bēg who was at that time governor of Etāwā, and that the latter had refused to make room for him.

Hēmū's head was sent to Mun'im Khān in Afghānistān (at Qūruqsāī) and he sent it on to Bāyazīd at Kābul with instructions to place it over the Iron Gate, and to have the drums of rejoicing beaten. It was 3 or 4 hours of the night when the head arrived and Bāyazīd at once went up to the citadel to give the good news to the Bēgams. They sent out a number of their servants to inquire how it was certain that it really was Hēmū's head, to which Bāyazīd replied by sending them Mun'im Khān's letter to read.

- P. 90a tells of Bāyazīd's being sent for and reproved by Maryam-makānī's orders for not clearing out a house for a servant of hers. He pleaded Mun'im Khān's commands and was forgiven. On this occasion Māh Cacak Khalīfa acted as interpreter or perhaps as go-between. After this the Bēgams, including Salīma Sultān and Bīka Bēgam went off to India.
- P. 93a mentions that Ḥaram Bēgam, the masterful wife of Sulaimān, left Badakhshān on account of some disagreement and came to Kābul. Her husband went to Mun'im begging him to induce her to return. He was successful and Bāyazīd escorted her a part of the way back.
- P. 95a records the death of Mīrzā Ibrāhīm, son of M. Sulaimān. He and his father, who had been in 72 fights with the Uzbaks and had always been successful, went against Balkh, but this time Ibrāhīm got separated from his father, was taken prisoner and put to death. The date was 966.
- P. 98a describes a visit paid by Mun'im Khān and other grandees of the Court to the shrine of Khwāja Qutbu-d-dīn Bakhtyār Kākī on the occasion of the saint's anniversary. The shrine was in old Dihlī, i.e., near the Qutb, which according to some, derives its name from the saint. Qutbu-d-dīn Kākī was from Ūsh in Farghāna, which perhaps accounts for his popularity with Bābar's descendants, and his anniversary, i.e., the day of his death, is the 27th November. There is a long account of him by Firishta at the end of his history and Abū'l-fazl has also a paragraph about him, (Jarrett III, 363). Bāyazīd's elder brother, the saint and poet Bahrām Saqqā, was living in New Dihlī in the cell of Nizāmu-d-dīn Auliyā near Humāyūn's tomb, but he too went off to the "Ūras" in the discharge of his self-imposed duty of water-carrying. On his way back he got a fresh attack of

jazaba, (attraction), and was insensible for several hours. Bāyazīd here refers again to his brother's poetry and gives three specimens of it. He says that his brother took to writing verse at the order of Shāh Qāsim Anwar who appeared to him in a dream at Samarqand.

P. 99a. Afzal Khān asked Bāyazīd to try and procure the release of Bairām Khān's dīwān Muzaffar 'Alī Tarbatī who was imprisoned in

P. 99a. Afzal Khān asked Bāyazīd to try and procure the release of Bairām Khān's dīwān Muzaffar 'Alī Tarbatī who was imprisoned in the house of Darvēsh Muhammad Khān Uzbak. Bāyazīd mentioned the matter to his master, Mun'im Khān who bade Bāyazīd remind him of the request when he went to Court. Next day when the Khān-khānān (Mūn'im) was in the house of Māham Bēgha, Bāyazīd gave him a reminder. Māham was present and observed that the matter was not of such great importance, and that it was only necessary to send some one to Darwesh Uzbak's house to release Muzaffar. The Khān-khānān, however, said that his Majesty must first be consulted, whereon Māham volunteered to mention the matter. While they were talking, Akbar came in from the chase, and after borrowing a needle from Takhta, the mother of Dastam Khān,¹ proceeded to extract the thorns, which had got into his feet in the jungle. Māham represented Muzaffar's case and his Majesty granted the prayer and added that Muzaffar was reported to be able to write tughrā and that the Khān-khānān might, if he liked, take him into his employment. Akbar, we are told, was highly pleased with the Khān-khānan for not acting in even such a small matter as the release of Muzaffar without consulting him.

In pp. 100-101 we have a description of a game of cards at which Akbar was present. Bāyazīd played the game on board a boat with

In pp. 100-101 we have a description of a game of cards at which Akbar was present. Bāyazīd played the game on board a boat with Muqīm Qara. Bāyazīd won, and as Muqīm had no money to pay his losses, Bāyazīd stopped playing. Thereupon Muqīm had to pledge his pōstīn or great coat and to sit playing in the cold. Mr. Erskine remarks that the joke seems to have consisted in Muqīm's suffering from the cold. At 101b we are told of Māham Bēgha's kindness to the author and of her giving him a house in Agra. There was a nīm tree in the grounds and Bahrām Saqqā, his brother, got him to put up a saqqī-khāna or water-house under it. Darwēsh Nazīr, one of the Saqqā's disciples, put up a saqqī-khāna at the Fort Gate, and when Akbar rode out he used to take a drink, and also used to listen to recitations from the Saqqā's Dīwān.

P. 102a tells a story about Akbar's sending for eighteen rupees of which the only point seems to be the exhibition of Māham Anaga or Bēgha as a sort of centre of affairs. Akbar sent a eunuch to Khwāja Jahān for the money. He and other officers were in attendance on Māham Bēgha, and he peevishly said to the messenger "from

whose jāgīr shall I take it?" Māham got over the difficulty by telling Takhlā, the mother of Dastam, to fetch the money from her Turkish waiting woman. Akbar was at this time, (968, 1561), devoted to the amusement of cock-fighting and in connection with this we are told a story about Shamsu-d-din Atka. This again is prefaced by a reference to Akbar's I orders that every one should shave Shamsu-d-din's beard (or perhaps his hair) was not long their beards. but still he had not cut it in accordance with the royal orders which he had only received when on his way from the Pānjāb. Akbar remarked upon this, and Shamsu-d-din replied by way of jest, that his hair had been longish but that when he came to Muttra, he had had it cut after the fashion of the Hindus of that place. The courtiers applauded the joke, the point of which was its allusion to Akbar's Hindu proclivities. At this time it was the custom that every one who came to pay his respects, should bring a game-cock and Akbar told Shamsud-din that he must do the same. Next day Shamsu-d-din appeared, but without a game-cock. When however Akbar noticed this Shamsu-ddin replied that he had one. "Where?" said Akbar, and Shamsu-d-din answered "under my arm." Akbar signed to the attendants to search if this was so, and when they did so the bird set up a crow. Akbar now ordered a certain cock of his to be brought. "Let it be a fighting one," remarked Shamsu-d-din, "for mine is famous in Lahor." When the royal game-cock was brought, Shamsu-d-din uncovered his and it was found to be a hen bird  $(M\bar{a}k\bar{i}y\bar{a}n)$ . The two birds, the cock and the hen, fought and Akbar was greatly delighted.

In the end of 968, (August 1561), there was a hurricane (jikar, dust-storm, Vullers s.v.) in Agra and the bridge of boats was broken. A fire too broke out in the carpet-house (farāsh-khana) of Māham Bēgha, and some of Akbar's dancing girls who lodged near it were burnt. The Khān-khānan went to condole with Akbar who seemingly was cynical enough to say that the burning of the girls was a small matter (sahl ast) and that they should go and console Māham for the loss of her property. This is followed by a story of how Akbar was unable to get his horse across the river owing to one of the pontoons having got detached, and how Bāyazīd, who is rather fond of blowing his own trumpet, contrived to make the horse jump across the gap.

P. 104a describes an entertainment given by the <u>Khān-khānān</u> when the guests took opium and also "coloured their teeth," (dandān

<sup>1</sup> See Blochmann, 193 and Badāonī II. 303. But Bāyazīd's phrase is hukm-i-mūy-i-sar guzāshtan and perhaps this means to leave the hair loose.

rang kardand). Erskine supposes (in his translation) that this is a euphemism for drinking wine. It may also refer to the eating of betel or to smoking. Evidently it was something unusual or improper, for Bāyazīd excuses himself for joining in the teeth-colouring by saying that he always tried to go in for good fellowship.

P. 105a records that Bayazid got the title of Sultan from Akbar.

P. 105b describes the assassination of Shamsu-d-din by Adham Khān. When Akbar was roused by the noise and came and saw the body and Adham, he called the latter  $k\bar{a}nd\bar{u}$ , (filth), or perhaps  $g\bar{a}nd\bar{u}$ , (sodomite), and struck him a blow on the ear and stunned him. (According to Abu'lfazl the expression used by Akbar was "son of a bitch"). After putting Adham to death, Akbar went to Māham's house and said to her "Māmā, we have killed Adham." Shortly afterwards he put his uncle, Khwāja Mu'azzam to death for murdering his wife. A few days later Akbar had a conversation with the Khān-khānān, and asked him what the people said of his reign. The Khān-khānān replied, "My king, (may you live 120 years!) the people love you and admire your perfect justice in killing Adham Khan for the murder of the Atka, and in putting to death Mu'azzam Sultan for murdering the daughter of Bibi Fātima." His Majesty rejoined, "I have done something better than this; it is strange that you don't mention it, but you know it all the same, though from certain considerations you don't refer to it." "What thing is it," said the Khān Khānān, "that I know and from certain considerations do not speak of?" Akbar replied, "What I have done better is this, that I have brought all the Atka's relations from Lahor, and have scattered them like the stars of the 'Daughters of the Bear,' giving them fiefs all over Hindustan."2

The Memoirs now become rather tedious and uninteresting, though here and there we can glean valuable information.

At p. 108b, we have a reference to one Jabār Bardī Bēg who had served under Bābar and had for many years been a darwēsh and had settled in Badakhshān. He was now returning thither after visiting the tomb of Humāyūn. Many pages are taken up with an account of Mun'im Khān's return to Kābul and his defeat at Jalālābād. At p. 117b,

<sup>1</sup> The expression is dar rang-i-banātu-n-na'sh parīshān karda haryakrā bahar gōsha-i-Hindūstān jāgīr farmāda īm. Bīnātu-n-nu'sh is the Arabic name for the constellation of the Great Bear whose stars stand apart and are not clustered like those of the Pleiades.

<sup>2</sup> Probably Akbar thought that Mun'im did not refer to this act of justice or generosity because there was an old quarrel between Mun'im and the Atka and it was even supposed that Mun'im was the instigator of the murder. See Blochmann, p. 321.

there is a reference to one Mirzā Shāh, the son of Jannat-āshiyānī: However this is not Humāyūn but a prince of the Deccan. There is a long account of Abū-l-māilī. This man killed his mother-in-law, Māham Cūcak, the wife of Humāyūn and mother of Muḥammad Ḥakīm. He was afterwards made prisoner by Sulaimān and put to death by Muḥammad Ḥakīm.

P. 122b speaks of a woman named Aghā Sarw-qad (cypress-form) who was formerly in the harem of Bābar and was now apparently the wife or mistress of Mun'im Khān. She came from Khān Zamān's camp to Mun'im's in the capacity of a spy or go-between.

P. 124b. We read of Akbar's hunting elephants near Cunār, just as his grandfather had done.

P. 128b. Bāyazīd repairs a saffa or portico in Benares which had been erected by Humāyūn.

P. 130a gives an account of one of Akbar's meetings for religious debates. The mullās of Rūm (mullāyān-i-rūm) are mentioned as having been present, and probably this means Romish priests. One Mīrzā Muflis—a kingdom-less prince, and who is said to have been an adept at logic,—was present and was being pressed with a question by 'Abdu-l-lāh Sultānpūrī. His rival Shaikh 'Abdu-n-nabī was also there, and in his turn propounded a question to the Prince. The latter who had not replied to 'Abdu-l-lāh's question, and was probably posed by it, (see Lowe's Badāonī, 190) seems to have lost his temper and cried to 'Abdu-n-nabī "Slave (Ghulām-i-kor)! be a little patient till I have answered the big slave, and then I will answer you." Mīrzā Muflis, (to whom there is a reference in Blochmann, 541), went to Mecca and died there in 989, (1581), and Bāyazīd witnessed his interment.

P. 131a. tells of the wonderful feat of a man called Mir Faridūn, who had some years before swallowed eighty misqāls of baras or barash (an intoxicating drug or drink made apparently from Indian hemp) and who now, to please the Khān-khānān and his friends took 140 misqāls of the stuff. He also drank Kōknār (a preparation of opium) instead of water, and yet for several nights remained in company, and acted as if the drugs had no effect on him.

P. 132a. Bāyazīd came to grief, very deservedly for destroying a Hindū temple at Benares with pillars bearing an inscription 760 years old. He converted the building into a Madrasa, etc. Rāja Todar Mal was annoyed at this and got the inhabitants to complain against him. The result was that Bāyazīd lost his appointment and was for several years a darwēsh. After some years he became Mīr Māl or keeper of the Seal (Blochmann VI), and subsequently he was made governor of Cunār.

P. 135a. has mention of Rājā Gajpatī, (Blochmann, 399), who is called Rājā of the country of Acīna (اچينه) and is said to have held the jāgīr of Būjpūr and Bihīya, &c., extending over both banks of the Ganges. At that time he was loyal.

P. 147a. Gives an account of Mun'im Khān's removing his headquarters from Tānda to Gaur (which Bāyazīd also calls Bangāla), and of the pestilence which broke out there. He says that the nature of the country is such that a pestilence (waba) breaks out there every thirty years (qarn) and that on othis occasion the plague was assisted by drunkenness (kaif). Mun'im Khān was himself a victim, dying there, according to Bayazid on the night of Monday, 18 Rajab 982.1 On the same night Muzaffar, the deposed king of Gujrāt, and who afterwards escaped and gave Akbar so much trouble, arrived at Gaur, having been sent there by Bayazid from Cunar according to Mun'in's orders. Bayazid tells how he himself went afterwards to Gaur and of the difficulty he had in taking charge of Mun'im's property. connection he mentions the names of two women, viz., Seor (Sarw) Aghā, Mun'im's widow, whom he describes as a reliable woman and one who had been in the harem of Babar and Humayun, and another lady who was the mother of Khwāja Shāh Manṣūr, who was Mun'im's bakhshī. Bayazid said he had no wish after Mun'im's death to remain on active service. He gave up his post of governor of Cunar but held for a time the position of  $d\bar{a}r\bar{o}gha$  of the Treasury. In the beginning of 986, (March 1578), he got leave to go to Mecca and left for that place with his wife and children. He was, however, detained for two years in Surat on account of a charge of malversation which was brought against him by his enemies. He got over this difficulty and was able to go to Daman, but there he had fresh troubles with the Portuguese and had to pay a heavy ransom before he was allowed to sail. They reached Aden in fourteen days and there a small boat came out to them, which had been sent by Gulbadan Begam and other ladies who had been to Mecca and were on their return. Bayazid sent the Bēgams news of India, &c. He spent a considerable time in Mecca, and lost his wife and one of his sons there. He buried mother and child in one grave, and occupied it himself for one or two hours so that it should not be too small or narrow. He sent his other children home, hoping that he himself should end his days in Mecca and might be laid beside his wife. But he had to return to India in consequence of hearing that his family had been made prisoner by the Portuguese at Daman. He left in 990, (1582), but had to wait long in Mocha harbour for a favourable wind. At last the "olive season" (mausim-i-zaitūnī)

<sup>1</sup> It should be 983. The English date is 23rd October, 1575.

came and brought a wind and they were just about to start when a boat called a "tāwarī" (see Blochmann, 241) came in from Diu and reported that all Gujrāt was in a blaze owing to the insurrection of In this extremity Bayazid consoled himself and his friend as they were sitting in the ship's cabin (dabūs) by taking an omen from Hafiz, the result of which was to satisfy them that the descendants of Humāyūn would eventually prevail. He was eight months on board ship and after a voyage of two months arrived at the port of Kūda (qr. Gōdhri, or perhaps Ghoga). Bāyazīd was in danger here but ultimately escaped to Sūrat. Apparently Muzaffar let him go on account of their old acquaintance when Muzaffar was his prisoner at He liked the climate of Sūrat and was willing to stay there but his sons Sa'ādat Yār and Iftikhār who were in Akbar's service, wrote to him that the Emperor was expecting him. He therefore waited upon Akbar in Fathpūr Sīkrī in the end of 992, (December 1584), and was graciously received, getting a house and the pargana of Sanan, for which however he was to pay a rental of 14½ lakhs. Rājā Todar Mal did not like Bāyazīd and tried to screw a higher rental out of him. He got the pargana in partnership with his sons, and apparently it was not lucrative.

In 994, (1586), Bayazid was raised to the rank of a mansab of 2001 and next year he was made Steward (bakāwal) and chamberlain  $(\bar{I}\underline{shaq} \ \bar{A}\underline{gh}\bar{a})$ . But he was soon after attacked with paralysis and had to give up all his appointments. But in 998 he returned to work and was made a Treasury dārōgha and amīn. In 999 Akbar gave him (probably in consideration of his bodily infirmity) permission to sit in the royal presence, and declared before a number of courtiers that Bāyazīd was an honest man and had served the state for nearly two quen, i.e., for 60 years. The Memoirs were completed on Sunday, 1st Ramazān, 999, (13th June, 1591), and with this statement and some verses the book closes. Previous to this Bayazid describes some buildings that he erected at Lāhōr, and gives an account of the distribution of copies of his book.

<sup>1</sup> He must have got further promotion for Abu'l-fazl, (Blochmann, 501), ranks him among the commanders of 300. Probably this was when he became Bakāwal Bēg in 995.

The Cāṭēçvara Inscription of Anagga-bhīma II of Orissa.— By NAGĒNDRANĀTHA VASU, Editor, Viçvakōṣa.

[Read August, 1898.]

In my article on the copper-plate grant of Nṛsiṁha Dēva II. of Orissa, read in May, 1896, in our Society's meeting, I merely alluded to this Inscription, expressing, however, my desire to publish it in full in a later issue. Now, compliant to that promise, I bring in my present article.

This Inscription, which was first noticed in the Viçvakōṣa i in 1894, is incised on a stone-slab in the temple of Cāṭēçvara (or Çiva) at Kisnapur village in the Padmapur Pargana, District Cuttack, and situated nearly 12 miles north-east from the town of Cuttack and 2 miles to the north of the road from Cuttack to Chandbali. On both sides of this large temple, there are other temples of smaller size dedicated to Kṛṣṇa-Rādhikā and Pārvatī, but these latter from their very appearance and architecture are evidently of a later period than that of Cāṭēçvara. From the resemblance of architecture the temple of Cātēçvara may be classed as coeval with other temples, built in several places of Orissa during the 12th and 13th centuries of the Christian era. The whole temple is built uniformly of basalt stone locally called baul-mālā. ornamental beauty and superior workmanship of the architect, are not a little exhibited in the temple, but much of its former beauty is, for want of repair, in gradual decay. The interior of this high temple is all dark, and now affords an unmolested habitation for innumerable bats, through the callous indifference of its votaries. In the sanctum of the temple, there is a deep excavation in which lies the Linga immerged in perpetual waters, save at the time of festivals when the water being drawn out the Linga makes its appearance.

A few people now inhabit the village Kisnapur, and they too, for the most part of them, are *Bhōpas*, *i.e.*, votaries to the God Cāṭēçvara. Formerly the temple of Cāṭēçvara had been vested with a large

<sup>1</sup> See Viçvakoşa, Vol. VI, p. 229.

devottara property, but the votaries had alienated a great part of it, and consequently the income having greatly deteriorated, no longer are the offerings and ceremonies conducted in their former grand scale. One thousand bighas of land and 300 bharanas of paddy per year, are all that now exist to defray the expenses of the temple. A considerable sum is added to the income by the gifts from the visitors, during the two festivals of the Çivarātrī and the lunar Caturdaçī of the bright fortnight in the month of Kārtika, when a vast concourse of people floods into the place.

The tradition as to the origin of the temple, runs as follows:-

The site, on which the temple of Cātēçvara now stands, was a tank. In the vicinity, a village school-master taught his pupils, in his little Cātaçālā, i.e., school. Mahādēva, the great god, himself came in the guise of a cata, i.e. pupil, and began to learn with other boys. Now, all the other boys had to be harassed much for their school fees, and paid them after several demands made; but Mahādēva, the disguised cata paid even before the first demand. Moreover, he would not be prevailed upon to disclose his parentage even at the injunction of the schoolmaster. Doubts now began to grow deep in the mind of the teacher, as to the identity of this extraordinary boy, and one evening he secretly followed the cāta, when returning from the Cātaçālā. Then to his great astonishment the boy came direct to the tank, and to the ecstasy of surprise of the beholding teacher, plunged into the waters and disappeared! The night following, the teacher was visited by Mahādēva in a dream and addressed to the following effect:-"I was hitherto learning of you with a view to reveal my greatness, go and celebrate my name to the world, henceforth I shall be called Catequara, the divine pupil." After this miracle, many came to study there and went out profound scholars. By and by, the fame of the virtue of this place reached the ears of the Utkala-raja, who thereupon, caused the tank to be filled with earth, erected the beautiful temple upon it, established the present Cateçvara-Linga within the temple, and dedicated a vast property towards its maintenance.

In this temple, we find an inscribed slab, bearing the inscription of Ananga-bhīma II of Orissa, which forms the subject matter of my present article. On the 7th of November, 1893, I went there with my friend Artatrana Micra of Mauda, to visit the temple of Catequara. The votaries at our request brought the inscribed slab out of the temple and placed it upon the outer door. The darkness of the night was then fast approaching upon us, and I hurriedly took some rubbings of the inscription in pencil. Subsequently, however, another set of tracing of the same has reached my hand:

The size of this slab is  $32.5'' \times 22''$ . The average size of the letters is  $\frac{5}{8}'' \times \frac{1}{2}''$ . The Inscription is in 25 lines, running through the entire length of the slab leaving a margin only of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inches on all sides. The letters belong to the ancient Bengali type of Kutila character, and resemble much the characters of the Mēghēçvara Inscription published in this Journal for 1897, and those of the Brahmēçvara Inscription, published in our Society's Journal, by Mr. Prinsep. 1

The Inscription was written by a poet named Bhāskara, the principal object of it being to record the erection of a Civa temple (of Cātēçvara) by Ananga-bhīma II.

The language is high-flown Sanskrit and generally correct.

As regards orthography;—the letter b is throughout denoted by the sign for v; p, y and v are sometimes doubled with the superscript sign r, e.g. in lines 2, 3 and 4. A curious mistake is committed in line 16, where thaddiggajah is written for yaddiggajah.

Opening with the words "Ōm adoration to Çiva," the Inscription first invokes the ocean as the abode of Viṣṇu and the birth-place of the Moon, who adorns the crest of Mahādēva. It then glorifies the family of Cōḍagaŋga born in the lunar dynasty, and gives the following list of Kings:—(1) Cōḍagaŋga, (2) his son Anaŋga-bhīma I., (3) his son Rājēndra (Rājarāja), and (4) his son Anaŋga-bhīma II., together with the names of two distinguished ministers, namely Gōvinda of the Vatsa Gōtra and the renowned Viṣṇu, the terrible foe of the Muḥammadan ruler Tuṁghāna (Tughril-i-tughān Khān).<sup>2</sup>

Transcript.

L. 1.

स यस्मिन् मैनाकः सार्ति जनककोडललितं

यदन्तः श्रीकान्तः श्रयति ग्रह्णामात्यद्वीं।

सरेभ्यस्तन्मश्रय्यसनमनुभूय व्यधित यस्ख्धासनं सोयञ्जयति सरि-

L. 2.

रकार के कि तामेकसभगः वि [1] कि कि

الأستناء أرابها والمتأومة

तसादभूदिस्ययमादधानः कुलानिधिर्विश्वविलोचनानां।

<sup>1</sup> J. A. S. B., Vol. VII, Plate XXIV.

See Tabagāt-ī-Nāṣirī, pp. 740-63, and my article on the copper-plate grant! of Nṛṣimha Dēva II., J. A. S. B., Vol. LXV, Pt. I, pp. 233-34.

<sup>8</sup> Metre: Çikharinī.

यमर्प्यामास गुगानुरागा-ज्ञेने मुरारिमुं कुटे पुरारिः ॥ [2]
भूपास्तसादभूवृर्व्विसमरसमरोदञ्चदाञ्चर्यवीर्थन्यो-

- L. 3. तिर्ज्ञालावली हमितमटकरिस्थानदानप्रवन्धाः। येषाङ्गीत्तिप्रवाहिः प्रतिपदमुदयत्खद्भनीसङ्गसौत्थ- प्रेश्वलाह्मोलकेलिः कलयति जलिधस्तानि लीलायितानि ॥² [3] तेषाम्बंभे विभदयग्रसा-
- L. 4. श्वोडगङ्ग द्वितीन्द्रव्याज्ञ व्याज्ञ त्वां गर श्वरित गोर्जे गाति राविवे भूव।
  दण्याद्दाम दिपमदनदीती र्थमं न्यासिनो यविक्तिंग्रेन प्रतिन्यपतयः प्रापिता मोद्यालग्वीं। 13 [4]
  धिमा स्वं कर पञ्चवे किलितवान् प्रागेव वै-
- L. 5.

  सोरामईतरिङ्गतेन मनसा निस्तिंग्रवह्नीन्ततः।

  चन्ने वैरिवधू जनस्तनतटीर्थ्या मृत्तमृत्ताः पुरः

  पञ्चादुद्वरगन्धसिन्धुरमदप्रस्थन्दिगखस्थनीः ॥ [5]

  यत्नह्नोजितमण्डलायनुटिलाटोपस्त-
- L. 6.

  यहाणप्रकरप्रशास्तरलेः प्रव्यधिभः पार्थिवैः।

  चण्डांग्रोदिवि मण्डलाग्रपटलं निर्भिद्य तन्मन्धुना

  मन्ये निर्द्यतिगर्वितैरनुरुतो निर्व्याग्यसीमारसः॥ 6]

  यासीत्
- L. 7. स्तुरनक्षभीमन्दपतिः पुख्यातपत्रं ततो न स्पृष्टः किषकालकत्मयमसीकञ्चोललीलायितेः। कोयं मन्त्रकलापदुर्भदकरित्यूष्टं विष्टायामुना श्रद्धामेकपदे न्द्रपे कलयता साम्नान्यमासादितं 1 [7] स्वरश्रति-

<sup>1</sup> Metre: Upajāti. 2 Metre: Sragdharā. 8 Metre: Mandākrāntā.

<sup>4</sup> Metre: Çārdūla-vikrīdita, and of the following verse.

<sup>•</sup> Metre, Sragdharā.

of the

MI IT

L. 8. 6 कि कि कि कि अपनिष्य अपनी भिरुपास्य मानो गोविन्द इंग्रजनि वस्तुले दिजेन्द्रः राज्ञः क एष महिमा यदसावनेन सामाज्यभारवद्यने विद्धे ध्रीयः 🖟 [8] 🕬 💛

सेवानतप्रतिमचीपतिनेश्रपाश्र-

िश्चित्रजितस्त्रिधिख-१०० विकास व त्रा विकास L. 9.

ेशका अवस्थित है नखराजहांसाः कार्यो र्

यत्पादपङ्गजग्रहाश्रमियाः खपन्ति राजेन्द्र इत्यज्ञिन तेन ततः चित्रीन्द्रः 🌬 🗐 🗸 🖂 👵 जचें। तमनकुभीमंत्रपति यस्य प्रतापानकः ज्वालासंविलतेः सुवर्धे प्राखरीयातिहवलं

क यदिन ह L. 10. चादायैनमहर्निशं यदि घना मुझन्ति धारीकरा नाशाः पूर्यितुं तथापि विजयौ यद्दानके लिक्रमः ॥² [10] 🐠 📑 नैलोकां विमलीकरोति यदि तली तिमुं धाखर्ड नी ि कि चेत् विलुठिन्त विलुठिन्त

तद्भिणितयो धिष्डमीतिकानां खनः। L. 11. यत् पादाञ्जनखदातिचितिकरेभूषाविधिर्यद्यभूत् ्र प्रत्यर्थित्तितपालभालपलके कः पट्टवन्धग्रहः॥ [11] 🧳 🥒 तस्याय चितिपालभाषवङ्भीनिदाल्-

L. 12. पादाकृते विषाविषारिवापरः कलितवान् साचिव्यमव्याहतं। श्वेतच्चत्रभाति यस्य यशसा निमाय किं त्रमहे साम्राज्यं त्रिकालिङ्गगाथन्यतेरेकातपत्रीष्ठतम् ॥ [12] ये याताः प्रश्या

र्याङ्गणिश्रस्य चित्रस्य स्वाः प्रो L. 13. यैवी दुर्दमदोविलासरसिक सुत्खातखड़ीः स्थितं। ष्यास्ययं यदमी द्वेपि न चिरादासास विष्णोः पदं प्राप्ता निर्भरनिर्देतिप्रखितां प्र-

<sup>1</sup> Metre, Vasanta-tilaka; and of the next verse.

<sup>8</sup> Metre, Çardula-vikridita; and of the next five verses. J. 1. 41

व्यर्थिनः पार्थिवाः ॥ [13] L. 14. विन्यादेरिधसीमभीमतिटनी कुञ्जे तटेम्भोनिधेः विषार्विषार्सावसाविति भयाचैतन्द्रिः प्रायतः। सामाज्यं सपरिश्रमेगा न तथा वैखानसानामिदं विश्वं

- विष्णुमयं यथा परिणतं तुम्घाणएव्वीपतेः । [14] L. 15. <sup>1</sup>करहोत्तंसितसायकस्य सुभटानेकाकिनो निष्नतः किं ब्रमो यवनावनीन्द्समरे तत्तस्यः वीरव्रतं । यस्याजीकनकौतुक्यसनि-
- नां योमाङ्गनेनाविना-L. 16. मखप्रैरनिमेषटित्तिभिरभुनेत्रेर्मेहानुत्सवः ॥ [15] साइसाः परितः स्तुरन्ति हरयः खेलन्ति यगाजा 2 प्रेङ्खद्भः पथिपुर्छशैकपटलेदिक्चक्रमा-
- L. 17. क्रम्यते । सम्वासः कटकेषु मौलिषु पदन्यासः कुलच्यास्टतां वद्धा यत्र न काचिदुत्कलपतेः साम्राज्यलस्मौं कृतिः 🖫 [16] च्यापीठं कियदम्बर्क्षियद्यः सः सौधमेतत् कियत् दिक्चक्रं किय-
- L. 18. देतदेव कालय ब्रह्माख्खाखं कियत्। चास्ते यच तनाति यच चरणं यचेदमामोदते यच खञ्यति यच वा निवसति खच्छन्दमेतद् ग्राः 4 [17] तपनतनयामभ्यादत्तेवतंसियतुं भ्रिवः व्यवलयवाल-
- काछोत्तंसेन विश्वति सुभवः। L. 19. विचिक्तिषवनोत्सङ्गे भ्रङ्गीविदनालिनं स्वनं जगित जिनतस्रेतादेते तदा यश्रोभिरिः ॥ [18] चनेन प्रवोत्तमप्रणयिनीषु वारादिधे-स्तटीषु घटितास्तुलाप्-

<sup>1</sup> Read कणां।

<sup>2</sup> Read यहिमाजा।

<sup>3</sup> Metre, Sragdhara.

<sup>4</sup> Metre, Çardula-vikridita. 5 Metre, Harini.

L. 20.

#### क्षहेमभूमीस्तः।

विनासवसती प्रातं क्नयता वनारातिना प्रचीवदनवारिने तरिनताः सा नोनं दृशः ॥ [19] प्रयानं सरसां प्रतेस्तत इतस्तेनाङ्किता यत्तट- सोरामोनगभीरग-

L. 21.

अनुहरध्यस्ताध्यवेदोमीयः।

अन्तःसौरभसारशीकरमयः पाध्यभारेरमी

मन्दंमन्दमनुवजन्ति पधिकानाम्बोधिवेलानिलाः ॥ [20]

आन्वीचिकीकुटिलमैचत यं कटाचैर्थस्य प्रयो वदनताम-

L. 22.

स्वरं यदीयहृदये विज्ञहार वार्ता

यं दग्डनीतिरिप निर्भरमाणिलिङ्ग ॥ [21]

उदग्रदोषादपथप्रवर्त्तन
स्खलद्गतीनिश्रुतिदृष्टिविभ्रमेः।

चकार तत्र प्रतिपत्तिसम्प-

1. 28. दास्पदं प्राणानि प्रननेवानि यः ॥ [22]
कानकाकसभारं भारयामास भाखानजनि रजनिजानि स्माटिकः पूर्णकुम्भः।
ध्वजपटचटुकश्चीर्यच च खोमगङ्गा
विरचितमसुनेदं धाम

L. 24. कामान्तकस्य । [23] विभवनभयप्रान्तिङ्गः तुमेकार्यवन्त । ज्ञान्त्रयमिव यावत् कुर्व्यते पर्व्यतेन्द्राः । सदनिमदमुदञ्चत्पे यापुञ्जप्रतिष्ठा- सिष्ट कन्नयतु तावद्दीयताञ्च प्रप्रक्तिः ॥ [24]

<sup>1</sup> Metre, Prthvi.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Metre, Çārdūla-vikridita.

<sup>3</sup> Metre, Vasanta-tilakā.

<sup>4</sup> Metre, Vançasthavila.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Metre, Mālinī; and of the next verse.

<sup>8</sup> Not clear.

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L. 25. खतुई भ्रानमाति यभो यदीयं विद्याखतुई भ्रान हप्यति यस्य बुद्धिः। मन्वन्तराण्यपि चतुईभ्रा यस्य स्नितः। ने स्नानिमेति सन्तादः किल भास्तरोऽस्याः॥ [25]

# Tránslation.

Ōm! adoration to Civa!

Verse 1. Hail to the Ocean, the sole lord of all the rivers, where the mount Maināka is enjoying the pleasures of the paternal lap of the Himalayas, where even the lord of Laksmī himself lives as a son-in-law in his father-in-law's house, and who has undergone that process of churning as a svadhā sacrifice.

- V. 2. From that ocean was born the moon, the wonder of all eyes, the love for whose virtues procured him a place in the eye of Murāri and on the crest of Purāri.
- V. 3. From the moon was born a race of kings, the blazing fire of whose prowess stopped the rutty streams on the foreheads of the elephants of their adversaries in the field of battle; swelled by the streams of their fame, the sea, heaved up at every moment and thus enjoying the pleasures of the companionship of the heavenly river Mandākini, still displays those sports in wavy frolics.
- V. 4. In the line of these sovereigns of renown, the radiant halo of the person of Narahari incarnated itself as King Cōdaganga, whose sword used to give deliverance to the hostile kings, when they turned, so to say, Sannyāsins on the banks of the sacred river, which flowed from the oozings of the elephants in fury of war.
- V. 5. Who, in the battle-fields, used to clutch with the palm of his hands, first the locks of the goddess of fortune of his adversaries, and then his sword; who first deprived the breasts of the wives of his enemies, of their pearls, and then deprived the temples oozing juice of rut, of the unruly and maddened elephants, of their pearls.
- V. 6. When the hostile kings, frightened by the sharpened arrows of the leader of the noisy army obtained deliverance by his arrows it seemed, as if, to avenge their wrongs, these kings proud of their deliverance, were penetrating through the reign of the sun which travels in the sky and which resembled the king in his fiery character.

<sup>1</sup> Metre, Vasanta-tilaka.

<sup>2</sup> Syadha means oblation offered to the Pitrs or spirits of deceased ancestors.

- the ink-like sea of sin of the Kali-yuga; who obtained possession of the empire not by taking to any conspiracy or a host of elephants but by , į the mere love of other kings.
- V. 8. Govinda, who was superior to other Brahmans, took his birth in the Vatsa Gotra. The Vedas voluntarily served him, i.e., he obtained a great proficiency in the study of Vedas. This is not a great glory on his part, as the king appointed him to bear the burden of the whole empire. at the base of the state of th
- W. 9. From him (sc. Ananga-bhīma) King Rājēndra (i.e. Rājarāja) took his birth, the nail-like swan of whose feet-lotus slept soundly on the moss-bed of locks of those hostile kings, who bowed down to him in submission.
- of the 10 Whose son was called Ananga-bhima, whose bornty triumphs, even if the golden Sumēru be melted by the fire of prowess and the clouds take up the melted gold and rain constantly to drench the quarters and slake the thirst of the needy, those showers of rain can never satisfy, but his bounty always satisfied the desires of all those who received it from him.
- .... Whose fame, when it whitens the Heaven, Earth and the Nether worlds, wipes away the glory of the heavenly Ganges which consists in her pure whiteness; whose praises when uttered by the throat makes away with the usefulness of the garland of pearls, the lustre of the nails of whose feet was the crown of hostile kings, who did not any more feel the necessity of wearing a turban on their head.
- V. 12. Whose toes slept (like the domesticated birds) on the forehead of kings, which were, as it were, the tops of houses; whose ministry was accepted by Visnu (a Brahmin) who appeared like a second Visnu, whose fame unified the empire of the kings of three Kalingas.
- V.13. Of the hostile kings, they that sought his protection at the very beginning of the combat, without shooting even an arrow, and they that, confident of the overwhelming strength of their mighty hands, raised their swords, it is strange that both these classes of adverse kings obtained, before long, the eternal happiness by gaining the feet of Visnu, i.e., those that died in the field went to heaven and there obtained final emancipation at Visnu's feet, and those that sought protection were very glad to appear before the minister Visnu and at his feet established peace. The way to the stable of the s
- V. 14. The Vaikhānasas could not even by their most austere penance comprehend the omnipresence and all-pervadingness of Vișnu to the extent to which the idea was realised by the Tumghana King (i.e.,

Tughril-i-Tughān Khān), when he began, apprehending Viṣṇu here and there, to look around through extreme fear, while fighting on the banks of the Bhīmā, at the skirts of the Vindhya hills and on the sea-shores.

V. 15. What more shall I speak of his heroism! He alone fought against the Muhammadan King, and applying arrows to his bow, killed many skilful warriors. Even the gods would assemble in the sky to obtain the pleasure of seeing him with their sleepless and fixed eyes.

- V. 16. Whose innumerable elephants and horses frolicked in all directions; whose white umbrellas when carried on the roads covered all the quarters; who lived in Kataka and trampled over the heads of the principal kings, wherever any work of the imperial goddess of fortune of the King of Utkala had not made its progress.
- V. 17. Think for a moment, how small is the earth to hold his fame, of what extent is the sky to spread his fame; how small is the vault of heaven again where to give a free scope to it; how small is the horizon where his fame rests like a garland, and how small is the whole universe to contain his fame.
- V. 19. On the shores of the sea, which are the favourite of Puruṣōttama, he created several Golden-mountains (Sumēru) by the performance of the *Tulā-puruṣa* gift; and by erecting there hundreds of comfortable pleasure-houses attracted even Indra's eyes which were fixed at the lotus-like face of Çacī.
- V. 20. He constructed several roads with hundreds of ponds, here and there, about them. The sea-breezes coming to these tanks rested for a while on the bed of the blooming lotuses and thereby after refreshing themselves of the fatigue of the journey, and bearing provisions of aqueous particles, fragrant with the sweet scents of the lotuses, floating in them, followed the travellers.
- V. 21. Whom Logic saw with side-long looks, whose lotus-like face the Vēdas kissed, at whose heart the news roamed voluntarily; and whom the doctrine of administration of justice embraced heartily.
- V. 22. He, who was rich in reputation, renewed with his clear sight into the Vēdas, all the Purāṇas now destined to be directed in the wrong ways through the gross-blunder of the expounders of them.
- V. 23. He built this temple to Çiva the destroyer of Kāma. The sun supports its golden pinnacle, the moon himself is its crystal jar full of water, and the beauty of the banner of its spire is the heavenly river Mandākiui.

- V. 24. As long as the principal mountains do heave themselves up the sea, and thereby protect the three worlds, so long do their temple proclaim the fame of its consecration here and sing the eulogy.
- V. 25. The poet Bhāskara composed this eulogy whose fame could not be measured by the fourteen worlds, whose intellectual powers were not satisfied even with the study of the fourteen branches of learning, and whose pithy sayings are not to be depreciated even in fourteen manuantaras.

Compared to the property of the problem 

The date of the Jagannātha Temple in Puri, Orissa.—By Babu Monmohan Chakravarti, M.A., B.L., Deputy Magistrate, Gaya, Bengal.

[Read August, 1898.]

The great temple of Jagannātha at Puri is widely known in India; but nothing definite is known about the time of its erection. Touching this point I adduce below some arguments based on recently discovered inscriptions.

The Gangavamça copper-plates of Orissa contain the following important passage!:—

पादी यस्य धरान्तरी चाम खिलं नाभिस्तु सर्वा दिणः स्रोचे ने चयुगं रवी चुगुगलं मूर्डापि च द्यौरसी। प्रासादं पुरुषोत्तमस्य चपितः को नाम कर्तुं च्तम-स्तस्येत्याद्यच्येरूपे च्तितमयं चक्रेय गङ्गेश्वरः॥ लच्ची जन्मस्हं पयो निधिरसी संभावितस्य स्थिति-ने धिस्त श्वश्वरस्य पूज्यत इति च्लौराब्धिवासाद्भवं। निर्विशः पुरुषोत्तमः प्रमुदितस्तद्वासलाभादमा-प्येतद्वर्तृगृहं वरं पित्रगृहात्याप्य प्रमोदान्विता॥

Translation:

"What king can be named that could erect a temple to such a god as Puruṣōttama, whose feet are the earth, whose navel the entire sky, whose ears the cardinal points, whose eyes the sun and moon, and whose head that heaven (above)? This task which had been hitherto neglected by previous kings, was fulfilled by Gangēçvara.

"The ocean is the birth-place of Laksmi, so thinking in his father-in-law's house (the ocean) Visnu lodged with some shame, though he

I Journal, Asiatic Society Bengal, Vol. LXIV, (1895), p. 139; Journal, Vol. LXV, (1896), p. 240. This pantheistic idea and even the very similes of the text may be traced as far back as Rgvēda (X, 90, 13-4).

got full adoration. Thus ashamed, the god Puruṣōttama was glad to get this new house; and Lakṣmī, too, gladly preferred living in her husband's new house to living in her father's house."

This passage shows that-

- (1) a great temple was erected in Orissa dedicated to Puruṣōttama,
- (2) that it was erected by order of Gangēçvara alias Cōdaganga, and
- (3) that it was erected on or near the sea-coast.

Puruṣōttama is another name of Jagannātha, whose Kṣēttra and Māhātmya are still called Puruṣōttama-Kṣēttra and Puruṣōttama-Māhātmya. The description thus leaves no doubt that the temple erected by Cōḍagaŋga can be no other than the present temple of Jagannātha.

Cōḍagaŋga, however, ruled long, for nearly seventy years. His anointment (abhiṣēka) took place formally in 999 Çaka (17th February, 1078 A.D.). But he is believed to have practically ruled from two years back, 997 Çaka, so far as the numerous inscriptions quoted in Dr. Hultzsch's Epigraphical Report of 1895-96 (particularly those of Mukhalingam) can be relied on. Similarly, if the date of Vajrahasta's accession be taken as 960 Çaka, then Cōḍagaŋga, his grandson, came to the throne in 997 Çaka (960+29+8),² or 1075-6 A.D. Orissa has been specifically described in the inscriptions to have been conquered by Cōḍagaŋga.³ Consequently the temple of Jagannātha must have been begun to be constructed several years after his conquest. When the Orissan conquest took place is not known, but at least 8 or 10 years might be reasonably assumed to have elapsed before it was taken possession of. We thus arrive at the anterior limit of 1085 A.D., as the date before which the temple of Jagannātha could not have been built by Cōḍagaŋga.

The posterior limit can be arrived at only indirectly. In the Govindapura inscription of Gayā edited by Prof. Kielhorn, it is said—

गता श्रीप्रषोत्तमं [भग]वयोद्ध्यः प्रतिष्ठापदं पारावारतटे पटीयसि लसचन्द्रग्रहानेह्सि। सर्वस्वं विततार तिपतिपित्रस्तोमः करोह्वासितै-स्तोयैयैः पिहितस्य पर्वश्यि विधोः साहाय्यमाप द्यगं॥

Translation: -

"Pleasing with his good fortune and youth, and a person of good renown, Manōratha went to the sacred Puruṣōttama, and on the

<sup>2</sup> Epigraphia Indica, Vol. IV, p. 190; Professor Kielhorn has thrown doubts on the English equivalent arrived at (see his note on the covering page 3, Vol. IV, pt. V).

<sup>3</sup> Ind. Ant., Vol. XVIII, p. 169; J. A. S. B., Vol. LXIV, p. 130.

<sup>•</sup> Ep. Ind., Vol. II, p. 334; for translation see p. 339.

noisy shore of the sea gave away his wealth in charity at the time of an eclipse of the bright moon; (and) gladdening his ancestors with the water thrown from his hands, he for a moment obtained the fellowship of the moon, eclipsed at full-moon time."

This inscription is dated 1059 Çaka or 1137-38 A.D. It was composed by one Gangādhara, son of Manōratha. The extract shows that the composer's father paid a visit to Puruṣōttama, and gave gifts on the shore of the sea. This visit may be presumed to have taken place 12 or 15 years back from the date of the inscription, or about 1122-25 A.D. The Puruṣōttama-Kṣēttra and necessarily the temple must have existed by that time, and must have attained considerable fame to deserve such specific mention. Thirty to thirty-five years might be allowed for this sanctity and the temple can be fairly supposed to have existed by (1125-35 or) 1090 A.D.

That the Kṣēttra and the temple existed before the end of the eleventh century receives some corroboration from another inscription. In the Nāgpur praçasti of the Mālava rulers I find the following passage:—

देवासी पुरुषोत्तमः स भगवानाभिष्टिये यः श्रिया येनेदं बिलवैरिबन्धिविधिना विश्वं समाश्वासितं। येनाधारि वसुन्धरेति दधतः सानन्दमन्दान्ततां यस्य प्राच्यपयोनिधौ बुधजनैकीजस्तुतिः प्रस्तुता॥

Translation by Prof. Kielhorn:-

"Near the eastern ocean clever men thus artfully proclaimed his praise, while he, pleased, looked on bashfully: 'O lord, it was the holy Puruṣōttama to whom fortune resorted, who relieved the universe by subduing the enemy Bali, and who supported the earth.'"

The king referred to is Laksma Dēva of Mālava, and the verse extracted is one of several describing his digvijaya. The verses preceding this refer to the invasion of East India, and the immediately preceding verse 43 refers to his conquest of Anga and Kalinga, while the immediately succeeding verse 45 refers to the eastern ocean. The allusion to the "holy Puruṣōttama" in the extract, and its juxtaposition with Anga, Kalinga and the eastern ocean points clearly to the Puruṣōttama-Kṣēttra and consequently its temple. The inscription is dated Samvat 1161 or 1104-5 A.D. Hence the Puruṣōttama temple would have existed some time before this, or say circa 1090 A.D.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Ep. Ind., Vol. II, p. 187; for translation see p. 193.

To resume, the above discussion is intended to establish the following cenclusions:—

- (1) that the present temple of Jagannātha was built under the orders of Cōḍaganga of Ganga dynasty,
- (2) that it existed by about 1090 A.D. and might have been built between 1085-90 A.D.,
- (3) that the conquest of Orissa took place very early in the reign of Cōḍaganga, probably in the first decade of his reign (1975–1985 A.D.).

The above arguments are not conclusive, but in the absence of positive proof from any recorded inscriptions, they appear to me to carry much weight.

Notes on the language and literature of Orissa, Parts III and IV. —By
Babu M. M. Chakravarti, Deputy Magistrate, Gaya.

[Read December 1897.]

PART III. ORIYĀ SONGS AND RELIGIOUS POEMS.

In Part II. I have given some glimpses of the Sanskrit compositions in Orissa during the mediæval Hindu rule. The vernacular compositions began to flourish from the close of this Hindu rule. This change was brought on through various causes. The first cause lay in the study of Sanskrit itself. Sanskrit drifted more and more from the colloquial speeches, and a study of the Sanskrit language came to mean years of hard labour. The elaborate and minute analysis and classification of Sanskrit grammars and rhetorics proved a heavy burden for ordinary readers, and the study of Sankrit literature became more and more unpopular among the leisured classes. If reading of Sanskrit works was found to be troublesome, the writing of works in that language was found to be still more so. The non-Brāhmin scholars continued to study Sanskrit literature on account of its high cultivation, but for compositions they turned their attention to the simple and familiar vernacular.

In Orissa this tendency was aided by its close connexion with Tēliŋgānā. By the 14th and 15th centuries the language of Tēliŋgānā, i.e., the Tēlugu, had been well developed and an abundant Tēlugu literature had been produced. Through trade and through dynastic influences, Tēlugu songs, Tēlugu poems and Tēlugu grammars came to be well known in the southern part of Orissa. The leisured classes saw that the vernaculars were capable of being well-developed, and in this respect Tēlugu literature served as an excellent model. Thus a number of the non-Brāhmin scholars took to cultivation of their spoken speeches.

A further help in this direction was received from the spread of

<sup>1</sup> Parts I and II are published in Journal Part I, 1897.

Vaisnavism. The sanctity of Puri attracted a considerable number of devotees, and several maths of Rāmānuja and other sects sprang About 1510 A.D. Caitanya, the great Vaisnavite up on its sands. apostle of Bengal, first visited Orissa, and later on settled in Puri. Here he gathered a considerable following and by and by came to exercise much influence. Though a good Sanskrit scholar, he aimed to impart his religious instructions through the vernaculars. With the Pandits he argued in Sanskrit, but to the laity he preached in their spoken dialect. His disciples came chiefly from the lower classes, and carried out this practice of vernacular preaching more extensively. this way religion which had hitherto been a strong prop of the monopolising Sanskrit learning, ceased to be so. In contradistinction to Brāhmins, grew up a body of Vaisnava gurus and mahantas whose influence gradually increased over the land, and with whose increasing influence the vernaculars came more and more to the front. Vaisnava devotees translated the Sanskrit religious works, composed new devotional poems, and by saykīrtans and vernacular songs considerably developed the power of the vernaculars. To the Vaisnavites are due almost all the early vernacular compositions both in Orissa and in Bengal.

Another cause for the change lay in the overthrow by the Mahomedans of the paramount Hindu power. In 1568 A.D. the last independent Hindu king Tēliŋgā Makunda Dēva was defeated and killed; and Orissa was overrun by the victorious army of Sulaimān Kerānī of Bengal. From that year for nearly two centuries Orissa remained subject to the Mahomedan rule, first under Pathans and next under the Mughals. On the transfer of the supreme power the influence of the Brāhmins and of the Sanskrit language received a check. The Hindu religion itself lost the powerful support of the ruling power. In the towns the Persian and the Persianised Hindī (Urdū) came into vogue. They showed the people that Sanskrit was not the only highly cultivated tongue in India. Hence a certain amount of freedom was produced which was favourable to the cultivation of vernaculars. In the towns and in the courts of petty Hindu chiefs many turned their attentions to compositions in Oriyā.

To summarise, the difficulties of compositions in the dead Sanskrit, the example of the early developed Telugu, the influence of Vaiṣṇavism and the supersession of the Hindu rule by the Mahomedans—all tended to swell the tide in favour of the vernaculars. Original Sanskrit works by the Oṛiyās practically ceased. From the 16th century downwards, one finds no real Sanskrit compositions by non-Brāhmins. Even among the Brāhmins the writers confined themselves chiefly to tīkās or ex-

planatory notes on Sanskrit classics. Small pieces, such as Gundicābijaya or Gundicā-campu (description of Jagannātha's car festival), or Hāsyārnava (collection of comic verses) hardly deserve the name of works. Gradually even this Sanskrit scholarship declined and Brāhmins fairly well acquainted with Sanskrit classics or philosophy grew smaller in number. Young students were obliged to go to Benares for studying Sanskrit grammar or Vēdānta philosophy, or to Nadiyā in Bengal for studying Nyāya or logic.

It should not however be understood that because compositions in Sanskrit dwindled, Sanskrit language itself ceased to influence. Both Tēlugu and Urdū did not escape the influence of Sanskrit study, and so could make no change other than a general inclination towards the use of the vernaculars. The vehicle of expression alone changed; the intellectual atmosphere underwent no great change. classics, specially the later ones such as the Naisadhīya and the Ciçupāla-vadha were considered models to be closely imitated; while Sanskrit grammars and rhetorics supplied the rules of elegant compositions in Oriyā. Thus whether in versification or in the sentiment underlying them, in the outer forms or in the inner ideas of Oriva poetry Sanskrit continued to dominate. At the time of discussing the later Oriyā poets, this preponderating influence of Sanskrit classics and rhetorics will be more fully seen.

The earliest compositions in Oriyā were

- Songs or (A)
- Translations of the Sanskrit religious works. (B)

These are generally in poetry. Certain prose works, such  $M\bar{a}dal\bar{a}~P\bar{a}\tilde{n}ji$  or the chronicles of the Jagannātha temple and  $Va\dot{m}c\bar{a}val\bar{i}s$ or genealogies of royal families had been begun from old time. have however no literary merits and their historical value I will treat at the end of this article.

#### SONGS.

Songs are the articulations of man's heart deeply moved, and are as common to the civilised as to the savage. They are based on a single sentiment, or a single incident, and do not require long continuous thinking. Hence they precede serious compositions, and take their birth from the early childhood of a language. Oriyā could not have been an exception, and Oriyā songs must have been current from an The earlier songs are lost. The only song which I am early period. inclined to think as pre-Mahomedan is Kēsaba Kō-iļi (केश्व कोइछि) of This is known widely in Orissa, and is taught to Mārkanda Dāsa. children in the pāthçālās. From its wide popularity it would appear

to be more than three hundred years old. Hunter's list 1 puts its date as 500 years old; but the reasons for this conclusion are not given. The song is based on an incident of the Bhāgavata. Çrī-Kṛṣṇa had gone to Mathurā leaving his mother Yaçōdā. Yaçōdā felt unhappy at the separation and poured out her grief addressing the cuckoo. The verse runs easy, and the subject—a mother's lamentation for her absent son—appeals to Indian hearts. No wonder therefore that the song is so popular in Orissa.

The other songs in current use are much later; but from the works of the chief Oriyā poets the names of several earlier songs can be traced. These songs passed into favourite tunes, and came to be thus noticed. Among the oldest may be named Rukmaņi Cautisā (पिकाणी चौतिणा)² Madhupa Cautisā (मधुप चौतिणा) and Biprasimha Cautisā (विश्विण) चौतिणा).³ Several other old songs are quoted as tunes by Upēndra Bhañja and in the Bicitra Rāmāyaṇa.⁴ It is a matter of regret that most of these songs are now known only by their names.

1 Hunter's Orissa, Vol. II, App. IX, p. 206. Here Mārkaṇḍa Dāsa is credited wrongly with the authorship of another song—Gyānōdaya Kō-ili. This song was really composed by Lōkanātha Dāsa, a disciple of one Trilōcana, and is much later. It deals with the mystical doctrines and symbols of Yōga, and some of the stanzas are really creditable, e.g.

जगतु ज्योति दुश्रार।
यहिँ विजे निराकार।
च्योतिपरे ज्योति गोष्य।
यामिनी पाहि जळु खच्छि दीप सो।
यतन करि जगिबु येवे।
युगे युगे योगी होइबु तेवे सो। २६।

"Luminous is the door to the universe where shineth the formless. Light unto light darkening, behold, the lamp is burning the whole night. Watch ye with care, then age after age ye can be a Yōgī [26]."

- <sup>2</sup> Dīnakṛṣṇa Dāsa's Rasakallōļa, 25th Chānda; Upēŋdra Bhañja's Baidēhīsabiļāsa, 46th Chānda.
- <sup>3</sup> Mathurā Maŋgaļa, 5th Chānda for Madhupa; and for Biprasimha, see Mathurā Maŋgaļa 27th and 30th Chāndas, Upēndra Bhañja's Baidēhīsabiļāsa, 45th Chānda.
- biļāsa, 43rd Chānda; Hamsadūta Cautisā (इंसड्त चौतिमा) Baid. Biļ. 44th Ch.; Göpajībana Cautisā (ग्रापजीवन चौतिमा) Do. 47th Ch.; Chapō-i (इपोइ) Rasapañcaka 1st Pañcaka. Similarly in the Bicitra Rāmāyaṇa one comes across Bā Cautisā (वा चौतिमा) Ādyakāṇḍa 16th Ch.; "Caļa-i Ratha" ("चळइ रथ") Ayōdhyā Kā. 11th Ch.; "Kusuma Sanrava" ("क्स्म भौरभ") Āraṇyaka Kā. 17th

The existing songs begin with those of Upēndra Bhañja. Many of the later songs are now being compiled and printed. About four hundred such songs have now been published referrable to some 70 or 80 authors. Among them the most prominent authors are Upēndra Bhañja, Sadānanda Kavisūryyabrahmā, Makunda Dēva, Banamāļi Dāsa, Rājā Jagadēva, Gōpāļakṛṣṇa and an unnamed chief calling himself Aṣṭadurgānātha (or owner of eight forts). The first two authors will be separately noticed in Part IV. Makunda Dēva appears to be the king of Khōrdā who was imprisoned by the British for the Khōrdā rebellion of 1804. Rājā Jagaddēva was of Pārļā Khēmḍi, District Ganjām; but his name I do not find in Mr. Sewell's list of Khēmḍi kings.¹ Banamāļi Dāsa and Gōpāļakṛṣṇa were two Brāhmins who appeared from their songs to have been devout Vaiṣṇavas.

Excluding from consideration the recent ones, the Oriyā songs are mostly Cautisās, that is in four or more couplets. Occasionally they are either Chāndas (like the ordinary poems)<sup>2</sup> or Chapōis (in six couplets), or Bōlis.<sup>3</sup> As a rule, the songs deal with incidents of Rādhā and Kṛṣṇa. Loves of human lovers and mistresses are rarely treated, and then the author is most likely of a royal family like Upēndra Bhañja. This exclusiveness in the treatment of the subject-matter originated in the paramount influence of Vaiṣṇavism and is noticeable not simply in songs but also in the other classes of poetry as I will point out later on.

The songs while mostly devoted to Rādhā and Kṛṣṇa, deal not with their pleasures but with their pains and describe either the pangs of newborn love or the pangs of separation from the beloved. Rādhā and Kṛṣṇa have been reduced to human level, and even of this anthropomorphised love, not the spiritual but the physical aspect, is generally dwelt upon. Several of these songs are composed in the true lyric vein, but as they generally contain descriptions of acts and feelings which would not be

and Uttarā Kā. 39th Ch.; Urdhaba Cautisā (कईव चौतिशा) Lankā Kā. 4th Ch.; "Kōṭā-i Guṇḍicā" ("कोटाइ गण्डिचा") Lankā Kā. 6th and 40th Ch.; Nandābā-i Cautisā (नन्दावाद चौतिशा) Lanka Kā. 18th and 64th Ch., etc., etc.

- 1 Sewell's sketch of the dynasties of S. India, pp. 45-6.
- 2 Chānda songs are referred to in Mathurā Mangaļa.

#### केवण चन्द्रवदनी बान्दगीतकु गाउधिला। इंडिला धाड़ी, धाँदला बाड़ि, द्चण पड़ि गला॥ 23rd Stanza 14th Ch.

"Some lady, with face handsome as the moon, was singing the Chanda song. (Seeing Kṛṣṇa) she missed a line, and ran, leaving singing and dropping her glances (in surprise)."

3 Bicitra Rāmāyāṇa, Jadu Bōļi (যান্ত বালি) Laŋkā Kāṇḍa, 34th Ch.; Dadhimanthana Bōḷi (হলি মন্থন বালি) Do. 41st Ch.

tolerated in modern society, it is impossible to quote them here. One of the least objectionable is the following song from the pen of Banamāļi Dāsa; it will give some idea of the Oṛiyā songs. The poet compares love to a sharp knife.

[राग भँभोट। ताल भुला ।]
प्रीत छुरी प्राण दिखा रे। वाजिव च्हातिरे करलुहा रे। घोषा।
सेहलुहा यतने तताइ। अश्रुजळ तिहँरे देइ।
मार कारिगर यतने गड़िकि, तिहँरे कळङ्क विष पिखा रे।१।
खातिवड़ तीव्या से धार। नेच न ठेकह तिहँर।
नवीन दर्भण परि भटकह, सबु दिने देख दिश्रे नूखा रे।२।
से च्ह्रीकि येज्ञ छुईँव। जाति कुळ सबु तेजिव।
न पारिले धरि निश्चे नाग्र यिव, विरिह्मानङ्क प्राण खिखा रे।३।
वोले वनमाळी से छुरी। सान वड़ नुहे काहारि।
याहा संगे येते पौरति करइ, तेतिकि करइ कुखा वुखा रे। १।
Sangita Sāgara, first Taranga, p. 28.

"Love is like unto a sharpened knife; its iron hand strikes at the heart; [chorus]. With care heating the love-iron, and with eye-tears toughening it, behold, the love god smith has made it carefully, its rust, alas, being poison-drinking. [1]. Very, very sharp is its edge, on which eye cannot be kept; it shines like a new mirror, looking new every time one sees through. [2]. He who touches that knife will have to forego caste and rank; he who fails to seize it is sure to die, so deadly to separated lovers. [3]. Banamāļī says that this knife (of love) belongs neither to the old nor to the young; how much (stronger) the attachment, lo! so much (greater) is the uproar. [4]."

A few words about the music of these songs might here be added. Oriyā music is essentially southern. In the mediæval times Tanjore was famed for its dancing and singing; and Tēliŋgāna was not behind hand. The Tēlugu music attained its greatest developments during the later Vidyānagara rule. Tēlugu songs are still regarded as among the sweetest in the Indian vernaculars. Orissa which was long subject to the Tēlugu influence naturally borrowed from Tēliŋgāna its music. The rāgas or major tunes are almost exclusively Tēlugu which adopted mostly Sanskrit names, such as Dēçākṣa, Kāmōdī, Bhairava, Mukhāri, Maŋgala, Gurjarī, Ghaṇṭārava, Kauçika, Dhanāçrī, etc. In course of time the major tunes were often modified by local peculiari-

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ties. These modifications might be considered as minor tunes, and fall roughly under two denominations:—

- (1)  $B\bar{a}n\bar{i}s$  (वाणी).
- (2) Brttas (হন).

The difference in musical notation between the two classes I can-Some of the ragas slightly modified are occasionally treated as as Cakrakēļi (বঙ্গনৈতি), Asārhasukla (श्रामाटग्राक्त). Kalasā (कळ्डा), etc. But the bulk of the Bāṇīs are evidently derived from favourite songs such as Munibara (मुनिबर), Rukmani Cautisā Biprasimha Cautisā (विप्रसिंच चौतिशा), Jadu-चौतिशा). (चिक्सणी Cautisā (यद्धिं चौतिशा), Gopajibana Cautisā चौतिशा), Chapō-i (इपोइ), etc. Brttas are similarly derived from favourite songs or poems such as Abakāsa Bṛtta (প্ৰবনাম হন), Dhaga Brtta (हम इन), Bhāgabata Brtta (भागवत इन), Krsnakaļā Brtta (श्रूषकळा हत), etc.

In the latter part of the Mahomedan rule, the up-country music was gradually introduced into Orissa. The tālas or time-beating thus came into use. I find in the Vicitra Rāmāyaṇa lone tāla named as Ādim Guçir (चादिस गुणिर), which looks like an Urdu or Persian name. The well-known tāla Khēmṭā (खेसटा) is also mentioned in the above poem.² This appears to me to have been introduced before the Mahomedan conquest, and then apparently from the South. The Khēmṭā was known to Jagannātha Dāsa who refers to it thus in his Bhāgabata:—

#### खिमटा नादे गीत गाइ। के धाँग, सिंचनाद वाइ॥१६॥

10th Skandha, 19th Adhyāya, Printed Ed., p. 117.

(Speaking of the Gōpa boys and their sports says) "some ran singing to the  $Kh\bar{e}mt\bar{a}$  tāla, and some ran roaring like lions."

#### RELIGIOUS POEMS.

Along with the songs, the Oriyā religious poems are among the earliest. They had their origin in the religious yearnings of the people. When Sanskrit, the depositary of all sacred and mythological informations, became a dead language, it naturally failed to satisfy the desires of the populace. Hence translations into vernaculars came to be necessary, and numerous attempts were made to meet the popular demands. Such attempts must have been made from an early

<sup>1</sup> Sundarā Kānda, 9th Chānda.

<sup>2</sup> Adya Kāṇḍa, 7th Chānda; Laŋkā Kāṇḍa, 27th Ch.

time, but the earliest ones are lost. The existing works cannot be put before the 16th century A.D.

The chief religious poems in current use are:-

- (1) The Crimad-bhāgabata (সীমব্বাগবন) of Jagannātha Dāsa.
- (2) The Rāmāyaṇa (रामायण) of Baļarāma Dāsa.
- (3) The Mahābhārata (মন্তামানে) of Sāraļā Dāsa.
- (4) The Harivamça (ছবিষ্ম) of Acyutānanda Dāsa.

Generally speaking, these poems are not literal translations but summaries and free adaptations of the Sanskrit original. The verses are usually simple and unornamented; the details are lengthy and tedious. Though they contain occasional passages of good descriptions and fine sentiments, they cannot be ranked high as literary compositions. Their importance lies firstly in the fact that they have supplied the bulk of religious and mythological informations to a strongly religious people from generations to generations. They have influenced all castes and all ages. By children their stories are heard with rapt interest; by adults they are learnt and talked about; by women and old men they are listened for days and months devoutly and patiently as the passport to some worldly good or heavenly bliss. Secondly, they form important land marks in the development of the Oriva literature. Before their time the Oriyā was a rude uncouth dialect, poor in ideas, poor in words. These religious authors nursed it, imported words into it or coined words for it, and gave it some polish. They showed that the Oriya language could be made fit for expressing complex thoughts and abstract feelings, and by their own inperfect efforts made it capable of being utilised in various kinds of versifications. They prepared in fact the way for the later Oriyā poets Dinakṛṣṇa Dāsa, Upēndra Bhañja, and Abhimanyu Sāmantasimghāra. Any sketch therefore of the progress of the Oriyā intellect would be materially incomplete if it fails to give some accounts of these old religious poems.

The most influential of these has been the Çrīmad-bhāgabata or briefly the Bhāgabata. Very little is known about it and its author. The work itself gives no clue to its time excepting the fact that it must be later than Çrīdhara Svāmi, much later because his name is referred to with high veneration. Crīdhara Svāmi was a Gujarātī Brāhmin

श्रीधर नामे विप्रवर । कळियुगरे जन्म तार ॥ १०३ ॥ श्रीभागवत ये पुराण । चछादश ये शोळकेण (? सहस्रेण) ॥ १०४ ॥ ताटौका ये चतुर्थांश श्रुत्रे । कहे शिरिधर परकाश्रे ॥ १०५ ॥

MS. Bhāgabata, 12th Skandha, 13th Adhyāya.

"The Brāhmin by name Çrīdhara was born in Kaliyuga. The Purāṇa Çri-Bhāgabata has clokas eighteen thousand. Its clokas in thousands one-fourth (of the Purāṇa), Çrīdhara has expounded in writing."

whose tīkā or commentry on the Bhāgabata Purāņa is the best known. He is believed to have flourished by the 14th century A.D. Hence the Oriva Bhagabata must be much later than 14th century A.D. Starting from backward I find that it must be earlier than sana 1143 or 1736 A.D. in which year was copied a MS. of the fourth Skandha. It is earlier than Baidehīsabiļāsa, one of the earliest poems of Upēndra Bhanja, for the Bhagabata is referred to as a tune (Brtta) in its 27th Chānda. He preceded Dīnakrsna Dāsa whose principal work the Rasakallola is probably based on the tenth Skandha 1st to 52nd Adhyāya of the Oriyā Bhāgabata. Dinakrsna refers to a tune Rukmani Cautisā (Rasakalloļa 25th Chānda), and this tune is derived from a song which is likely to have been based on the popular vernacular Bhāgabata (10th Skandha 56th to 58th Adhyāya). Dīnakṛṣṇa's time be taken at the middle of the 17th century, as I shall show later on, the Oriya Bhagabata must be still older and cannot be later than the close of the 16th century.

This is borne out by the general tradition, according to which Jagannātha Dāsa, the author of the Oṛiyā Bhāgabata, is identifiable with the Jagannātha Dāsa who founded the Atibara subsect of Oṛiyā Vaiṣṇavas, and who was a disciple of Caitanya the great Vaiṣṇavite preacher of Bengal. This tradition is strongly corroborated by the Jagannāthacaritāmṛta which attempts to give a biography of the Atibara founder somewhat like Caitanya's in the Caitanyacaritamṛta. In that work the author Dībākara Kara remarks in the 5th Adhyāya:—

स्नोक करि भागवतार्थ। परें कलि भाषाचरित ॥ १६॥ पूर्वे येउँ गोसाँ इँ यिइँ। येवण भाषा इन्ति कहि॥

से पद ठिक ठिक करि। लेखिलि भाषा अनुसरि॥१८॥ Ms. folio 28.

"Having understood the slōkas of Bhāgabata, I rendered them into  $Bh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ . The lines which my Gōsāĩ (i.e., Jagannātha Dāsa) had said before in  $Bh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ , I correctly understood, and wrote following this  $Bh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ ."

As Jagannātha Dāsa was a disciple of Caitanya, he must have flourished in the 2nd quarter of the 16th century, and the Bhāgabata was probably finished towards the latter part of this 2nd quarter.

The Jagannāthacaritāmṛta has not yet beeu printed. The manuscript which I am using consists of 136 folios with four lines on

<sup>1</sup> See Supra pt. I, p. 330, J. A. S. B., Part I, 1897. The passage runs thus:— द्ति श्रीमङ्गागवते महापुराणे... विंसी अध्यायः ॥ ०॥ समस्त रामचन्द्र दो महाराजाङ्कर १२ अङ्क सन १९४२ साले ए पुस्त(क) संपूर्ण हेला। Ms. Folio 127.

each page. It is a curious mixture of Sanskrit and Oriyā verses. It purports to be a biography of Jagannātha Dāsa, but the first seven Adhyāyas treat more of Caitanya than of Jagannātha, while the 20th Adhyāya is exclusively devoted to a description of the Puruṣōttama Kṣēttra. The author Dibākara Kara was a Brāhmin Vaiṣṇava of the Atibara subsect.¹ His time is unknown, but from the respect in which he is held by the Vaiṣṇavas of that subsect, he cannot be less than 150 to 200 years old. The biography is more full of quotations, eulogies and miracle descriptions than of facts, and after a wearisome reading, I have been able to cull the following few details about Jagannātha Dāsa.

Jagannātha was born at Kapilēçvarapura Sāsana, District Purī. His father was Bhagabāna Dāsa Purāṇa Paṇḍā (reader of Purāṇas), and his mother was named Padmā. The time of his birth is noted as noon of bhādra çukla aṣṭamī. As he grew into boyhood, he took up the usual studies of a Brāhmin, and he is said to have read up to his eighteenth year. Apropos of the Bhāgabata, it is said in the 1st Adhyāya:—

# श्रीरामायग्र ग्रत्थ साधि। श्रीभागवते देले वृधि। १६। द्वादग्र स्त्रन्द भागवत। टीका टिप्पशिव्हि सहित॥१०५॥

"Having studied the Rāmāyaṇa, he applied his mind to (studying) the Bhāgabata;—the twelve skandha-ed Bhāgabata with all its notes and commentaries."

After finishing the studies, Jagannātha Dāsa took up his father's pursuits, viz., reading Purāṇas in the temple of Jagannātha. Here Caitanya often met him and was so much delighted with his reading and religious devotion that he made him a disciple. Gradually Jagannātha became the favourite of Caitanya who gave him the surname Atibara or "the greatest." This displeased the other disciples, most of whom left Purī. Caitanya grew more and more fond of him and recommended him to king Pratāpa Rudra of Orissa. Soon after Caitanya disappeared (i.e., died). Jagannātha Dāsa continued to reside in Purī. He showed various miracles to the king and converted him

1 In the 5th Adhyaya the author thus speaks of his own ancestors.

मो नाम वित्र दिवाकर । निमदेव पिता मोहोर । ४। गोपाळदासे खुडुपिता । नन्ददासे ताङ्कर पिता । ५ । ताङ्कर पिता वाद दासे । चम्पा नामेण माता मोर । ६ । भरद्वाज गोच मोहोर । ष्टहत्यिङ्कर प्रवर । ७। MS. Folio 27.

"My name is Dibākara, a Bipra (Brāhmin by caste). Nima Dēba is my father, and Gōpāļa Dāsa my uncle. Their father is Nanda Dāsa, whose father is Bā-i Dāsa. My mother is by name Campā. My gōtra is Bharadvāja, and (my) pravara Vṛhatyangira."

and numerous others as his followers. Ultimately, Jagannātha Dāsa himself disappeared in the body of the Lord Jagannātha. According to the author, Caitanya was an avatāra of Kṛṣṇa, while Jagannātha Dāsa was an avatāra of Rādhā.

The Bhāgabata Purāṇa is the most sacred book of the Vaiṣṇavas, their Bible or Koran. The Oṛiyās are mostly Vaiṣṇavas, and hence the Oṛiyā Bhāgabata enjoys an immense popularity. In every respectable house a room is set apart in which the Bhāgabata with the other religious works is kept on a gādi (raised seat) and periodically or daily worshipped with flowers, tulsi leaves and sandal pastes. In every important village a shed is set aside at one end, where the villagers gather and hear every week the Bhāgabata read out by Brāhmins. On auspicious days the Bhāgabata is read out in a gentlemen's house to his friends and relatives, while the pōthi is always handled with care and respect.

I give below two extracts to let the reader have some idea of the writer's powers. The first gives a description of the summer season in the groves of Bṛndābana; and the second attempts to describe in vernacular the Māyā doctrine of Vēdāntism.

> एमन्ते शुग परीचित। खभावे सरिला वसन्त ॥ ५ ॥ घमें तापित सर्व जन ॥ निदाधकाळ खागमन । सर्वेदा वसन्त पवन। सधीरे वहे दिन दिन॥ वसन्त नुहे ना दुर्ह्मभ। ये वने श्रीराम माधव॥ नदीनिर्भर जळ नादे। निवीड भरङ्ग प्रवदे॥ निर्भर जळकरों मिलि। च्यतिभीतळ वनस्यळी॥ १०॥ नदीतरङ्ग पवन योगे कम्पमान ॥ पुष्पवन । जले अक्टर एष्य येते। कमळ कुमुद सहिते॥ ताहाङ्क रेण घेनि वळे। पवन वहे कुतु इले॥ एण से खन्दावन देश। निदाघ न करे स्परण ॥ घन गहन वन भूमि। तेगु नुहन्ति जोवे स्रमी । १५॥ अति गभीर नदीजळे। लहरी वाजि उठे वळे॥ भङ्ग तरङ्गे ध्या तुठ॥ पङ्ग दिशाइ वेनि तट। पुणि एवन भूमि देश। आदिल न करइ ग्रास॥ खभावे कुसुमित वने। चित्र मथर पद्मी खने॥ कोकिळ सारस निकर। ममर ध्वनि मनोच्चर ॥२०॥ 10th Skandha, 19th Adhyāya, printed ed. pp. 115-6.

"Now listen Pariksita. In due course passed away the spring. [5]. Came hot summer, perspiring all men. (But in Brudābana) every day the spring breezes blow gently. Spring cannot be rare in the grove where Çrī-Rāma (Balabhadra) and Mādhaba (Kṛṣṇa) are. springs babbling, make murmurs in the river water. The sprays of the stream and of the springs mixing, keep cool the woody groves. [10]. With the breeze shake the river ripples and the blossoming groves. Playfully the wind wafts abroad the (pollen) dusts of the flowers in water, the lotuses, the nelumbiums, and others. Hence this Brndabana land with its deep woods and groves hot summer never touches; hence its residents never feel tired. [15]. In the deep river water, ripples rise one after another in force; muddy look both its banks; the ripples breaking wash the bathing recesses. Moreover, the sun never torments this forest grove, this wood by nature blooming with flowers, and resounding with the screams of the many-coloured peacocks, with the notes of the cuckoos and the cranes, with the delightful hum of the bees. [20]."

भो नाथ नम तो पयर। आदिएरष विश्वेश्वर॥
प्रकृति परे तोर वास। एगु प्राणिङ्कि अप्रकाश्च॥ ७०॥
जनुङ्क अन्तर वाहारे। तो विनु अन्य नाहिँ परे॥
आत्मादि मायायविनका। जीव खरूपे थाइ एका॥
इन्त्रिय तुळे भोग करि। अभय आदि रूपे पूरि॥
तोहोर माया यार चिते। से तोते जाणिव केमन्ते॥
नटङ्क मध्ये ये नायक। से येह्रे नाटे मोहे लोक॥ ७५॥
नाना काछेणि से भियाइ। न्यकारकु ये नचाइ॥
देखन्ता प्राणी मन मोहे। सत्य विचारे कि कि नोहे॥

1st Skandha, 8th Adhyāya, printed ed. p. 40.

"Salutation to thy feet, oh Lord! thou, the first cause, the Lord of the universe. Thou residest beyond Prakṛti (nature), and hence art invisible to beings. [70]. The interior and the exterior of all creatures, nothing is outside thee. (The ideas of)  $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ , i. e., Self and others are but so many  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  curtains, while in essence the Being remains the same. This Being enjoys through the senses; and puts on (as masks) forms like abhaya, and others. How can he know thee, oh Lord! over whose mind thine  $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  (illusion) is? Just as the master among the nature (jugglers) by his juggleries fascinates the lookers-on; [75] and bringing forth various tricks and causing puppets to dance, bewitches the minds of spectators—but in truth they are nothing (so is it with thee, oh Lord!)."

The Bhāgabata was also translated in Oriyā by Krsna Simha, the Rājā of Dharākōta in Gaujām District, and this translation is believed to be more accurate. But like the revised version of the Bible it has failed to be popular. Hunter's list also mentions an Oriya version of the Bhāgabata by one Kṛṣṇa Dāsa. The influence of Jagannātha Dāsa's Bhāgabata is traceable in many of the later works. It moulded three large works, viz., Dīnakṛṣṇa Dāsa's Rasakallōļa, Bhaktacaṛana Dāsa's Mathurā Mangaļa, and the Prēmapañcāmṛta of Bhūpati Pandita. Modified by Rādhā-cultism, it had its effect on the works of Sadānanda Kavisūryabrahmā and Abhimanyu Sāmantasimghāra. whether with or without Rādhā-worship, the numerous songs of the Oriyās (Cautisās and Pōis). As already pointed out it gave rise to a separate tune and class of versification. Even now various Jātrās based upon and borrowed from the Bhagabata are played to large audiences in the mofussil, and are watched with much interest. importance of this work in the past and even present life of the mofussil Oriyās it would be difficult to exaggerate.

Next in importance is the Oṛiyā Rāmāyaṇa (or as commonly pronounced Rābāṇa) of Balarāma Dāsa. Little is known about the author. He must be earlier than sana 1164 or 1757 A.D. in which year one of the manuscripts I have seen was copied. He apparently preceded the poet Upēndra Bhañja, as the latter refers to him respectfully as इपा चिदाए गीन प्रकाश, (i.e.), one who uttered his verses inspired by the grace of God.¹ This veneration presupposes a pretty long time back and agrees with the general tradition according to which Balarāma Dāsa was a disciple of Caitanya. In Jagannāthacaritāmṛta that I have already referred to, Jagannātha Dāsa is said to have been initiated as a disciple of Caitanya by मन नळराम दाम (the enthusiast Balarāma Dāsa).² If he be identifiable with the author, then the Oṛiyā

येंजिट मत्त वळराम । बैब्णव मानद्भ जत्तम । १२६ । चासन ग्रच (न) भोजन । समण खापन खपन । १२०। राच दिवस न जाणिना । प्रेमरे मत्त होद्द थानि । १२८ ।

"That enthusiast Balarama, the best among the Vaisnavas, he does not, while sitting, sleeping, eating, walking, lying, dreaming, know day or night; but is phrenzied in his devotion (to God)."

Balarāma Dāsa has been again mentioned in Fol. 36, as a chief disciple of Caitanya Dēva.

श्रीगौरिदास पण्डित। मन वळराम सङ्गत॥

l Baidēhīsabiļāsa, 1st Chānda, 4th Stanza, printed ed., p. 4. Upēndra Bhañja does not name him, but this has been explained by his commentator.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Jag. caritāmṛta MS., Folio 10.

Rāmāyana slightly preceded the Bhāgabata and will have to be placed in the 1st quarter of the 16th century.

Balarāma Dāsa came of a respectable family. He was a son of an Oṛiyā minister named Sōmanātha Mahāpātra.

#### महामन्त्रिवर सोमनाथ माहापात्र। वळरामदास ताहार खटर पुत्र॥

MS. No. 2, Fol. 308.

"Çrī-Sōmanātha Mahāpātrā is the chief of ministers. His son is Baļarāma Dāsa."

He became a devout Vaisnava and came to reside in Puri. In the closing passages of each Kāṇḍa he expresses his humility and prays to Jagannātha for his deliverance. His Rāmāyaṇa is simple in style and is generally written in one form of versification. He sometimes uses grammatical forms not now in existence, e.g.—

### चर्म नयनेग मु देखिलि जगद्गाय। तेगु से वाखाणिलि चादिकाग्ड ग्रस्थ॥

MS. No. 1, Fol. 447.

"With the eye of flesh have I seen Lord Jagannātha; hence have I been able to expound the work Ādikāṇḍa."

Here "nayanēṇa" contains an instrumental form of "ēṇa" which was derived from Sanskrit but is not now in use. Similar grammatical variations are also to be found in the Oṛiyā Mahābhārata. It is a pity that neither of these works has yet been printed. The influence of this Rāmāyaṇa is perceptible in several later works, such as Baidēhīsabiļāsa of Upēndra Bhañja, Bicitra Rāmāyaṇa of Bisvanātha Khuṇṭi-ā, the Bicitra Rāmāyaṇa of Harihara Dāsa and Rāmalīļā of Sadāsiba Dāsa.¹ The Rāmalīļā Jātras of the mofussil are mostly based on this work. Kṛṣṇa Simha of Dharākōṭa translated another version of the Rāmāyaṇa, which though literally more correct has failed to catch the public ear.

1 This author is not mentioned in Hunter's list. The manuscript consists of 92 folios with 5 lines on each page. The work describes in verse the story of Rāma from his birth to his abhiṣēka (crowning). The manuscript was copied in 1229 sana or 1820 A.D. and ends thus—

#### सदा सदाभिवकु रमन्त छपा कर। रामसीता विनु आने मन नोड तार ॥ 121st Canto, 14th couplet.

"(Oh God!) Always do this favour to Sadăsiba, that his mind may not go elsewhere except towards Rāma and Sītā."

In addition to the Rāmāyaṇa, Baļarāma Dāsa composed numerous smaller pieces, a list of which is to be found in Hunter's Orissa, App. ix. They amount to twenty-two and deal with various religious and ethical topics. Of these I have seen in manuscripts, the Arjuna Gītā (No. 2), Gupta Gītā (No. 14), and Tuļābhīṇā (No. 23); and in print, Bēdhā-parikramā (No. 1), Gajanistāraṇa Gītā (No. 10), and Mrugāṇistuti (No. 17). I have also seen in print Kānta Kō-iļi (कान कोइळ) which was composed by Baļarāma Dāsa, but which has not been mentioned in Hunter's list. This song is put into the mouth of Sītā and describes the events from her abduction by Rāvaṇa to Rāma's abhiṣēka.

The next great epic of Sanskrit, the Mahābhārata has also been rendered into Oriyā. The popular version was by Sārōļā Dāsa. He was a Çūdra by caste, and while he professed to be a Vaiṣṇava and speaks devoutly of Jagannātha, he was at heart a worshipper of the goddess Caṇḍī. The closing lines of each parva speak of Sārōļā Chaṇḍī Ṭhākurāṇī; and in his last page he says—

# यखेँरपूरवासेनि चिङ्गुळा चाडी ग्रारोळो। से मोर तुळसीमाळ हेले बच्चस्यळे॥

"The (goddess) Hingulā Caṇḍī Sārōlō dwells at Jakhēmrapura. She is my tulasī (Ocymum) garland that swings over the breast."

Then again his last lines are

# श्रीचरही च यखेंपूरवासीङ्ग चरगे। शुद्रमुनि भारोळादास पसीला भारगे॥ MS. Folio 245.

"At the feet of Çrī-Caṇḍī, the resident of Jakhēmpura, the Çūdra ascetic Sārōļā Dāsa seeks refuge."

The goddess Caṇḍi is said to be of Jakhēm which is probably the older form of the present village Jhankara in Thāna Tirtōla, District Cuttack. Here the worship of Sārōlā Ṭhākurāṇi is widely prevalent and attracts considerable local pilgrimage.

It is impossible at present to find out the precise date of this work. It must be older than the 3rd Aŋka of Rāmacandra Dēva, Mithuna 21st, on which date the oldest manuscript I have seen was copied. The 3rd Aŋka of Rāmacandra Dēva II. falls in 1732-3 A.D.¹ How much older he was there is no means of knowing. But from its popularity and veneration, from its uneven versification, and peculiar forms of several of its words and grammatical terminations I infer that the work cannot be later than

<sup>1</sup> In Appendix IV of this article I have shown that Rāmacandra Dēva began to reign in 1731-2 A.D. His 3rd Anka or the 2nd year should therefore be 1732-3 A.D.

16th century A.D. and might belong to its first half. Like the Sanskrit original it forms a gigantic undertaking and takes up about two thousand folios. It does not pretend to any literary finish, and the verses often rhyme unequally. But it has the merit of having superseded the Sanskrit Mahābhārata among the common mass.

According to tradition, Sārōļā Dāsa was a resident of the village Kāļināga in Parganā Jhankara. A cāsā by caste, he had three more brothers. He was considered the dunce of the family; but through the grace of Sārōļā Dēvī, the principal goddess of Jhankara, he is said to have acquired the power of versifying. The goddess ordered him to compose the Mahābhārata in Oṛiyā; and when he expressed his inability to distinguish good from bad verses, she said "Write on palm leaves whatever comes to your mind. When you get disgusted, take the palm leaves so written to the river Candrabhāgā, and float them on its water. Gather those leaves which will float up to you and stitch them according to the order of receipt. This will be your Mahābhārata." In this way Sārōļā Dāsa is said to have composed his work. Candrabhāgā is another name for the stream Budhā that flows past the village Tentulipadā in Parganā Jhankara. After composing, Sārōļā Dāsa took his poem to Puri, but there the Pandits laughed at it. During the night, however, Lord Jagannātha appeared in a dream to the Rājā, and strongly recommended the work to him. Then by order of the Rājā, the work was re-examined by the Pandits, who unanimously approved it. Pleased with his poem, the Rājā of Purī gave him, as  $j\bar{a}g\bar{i}r$ , Jhankara and three other Parganās. Sārōļā Dāsa's descendants still live at Kāļināga, Tēntulipadā and the adjoining villages, and now pass as Karanas or members of the writer-caste.

Another version of the Mahābhārata into Oriyā was prepared under the direction of the Rājā Kṛṣṇa Simha of Dharākōṭa. But this version though literally more correct, is hardly known among the people. The influence of the Mahābhārata, both Sanskrit and Oriyā, may be traced in certain brief redactions such as the Sucitra Bhārata of Kēsaba Dāsa and the Bicitra Bhārata of Bisvambhara Misra. Episodes of Mahābhārata were worked into smaller pieces as Kapaṭapāsā or fraudulent dice-playing, Subhadrāpariṇaya or marriage of Subhadrā, Gajanistāraṇa Gītā or the deliverance of the elephant in his fight with the tortoise, etc. In addition the Bhāgabatagītā which really forms a part of the Mahābhārata was translated into Oriyā; and a version of the Jaimini Mahābhārata was made for popular use.

The last important religious work I will notice is the Harivamça. In the original Sanskrit it is a supplement of the Epic Mahābhārata.

But as it treats of Kṛṣṇa and his career, it assumed more importance in a Vaiṣṇava land. Kṛṣṇa Siṁha of Dharākōṭa, in pursuance of his desire to have Oṛiyā translations of the chief religious works translated the Harivaṁça. But it is not known among the mass. They use two versions which are commonly designated as

- (1) Khandkiā or single-volumed, and
- (2) Sātakhaṇḍi-ā or seven-volumed.

The first is later and was made by a Brāhmin named Nārāyaṇa Dāsa. He speaks of himself thus in his last but one couplet:—

# श्रीनीळसुन्दरनाथ अभय चर्गो । विप्र नारायग्रदास नमइ वद्यस्थळे ॥ MS. Folio 272.

"At the safety-giving feet of the all-beautiful Lord of the blue (hill), the Brāhmin Nārāyana Dāsa bows at heart."

As usual, nothing is known of him. But I am inclined to think that he was contemporary with the chief Oṛiyā poets, and probably belongs to the beginning of the 17th century.

The second work is much older and more popular. It was made by Acyutānanda Dāsa. He was a Çūdra by caste and was initiated into Vaiṣṇavism. He preached Vaiṣṇavism among the cattle-keeper caste (Gauras) and was given the title Mahata. Undoubtedly he was a devout Vaiṣṇava and his poem is full of expressions of humility. He lived in Raṇapura, a Tributary State adjoining the Purī District and was supported by its chief, Padmaļābha Narēndra. According to Raṇapura royal genealogy, Padmaļābha was the 97th king of the family, and ruled between 1477 to 1525 A.D. He is said to have accompanied the Orissa king Puruṣōttama Dēva in his raid to Kāñcī (Conjivēram). The time of this Harivamça should therefore be referred to the beginning of the sixteenth century. Certain personal informations were given by the poet himself in his closing lines.

रगापुर मिम मु आखण्डचळे मु विस्ति शि शाह । पद्मनाम नरेन्द्र मोते अर्म देह पोसह ॥ जाति रे मुह्हि ये सुद्रजन्म अटह । दीचा पाह मु गडड़ कुळे थाह ॥ समस्त गोपाळङ्क नाम सिचा देह । श्रीहरीचरणकु अश्रि करिथाह ॥ गउडकुळरे मु वोलाइ महत।
दया करिक्ति मोते कमळारकान्त॥
श्रीगोपीनाथङ्क चरणकु खास।
कवि अचुतदासकु रख हे पीतवास॥
सातखण्ड हरिवंश होइला सम्पूर्ण।
खचुतदास भावइ गोविन्द चरण।

MS. last chapter, folios 231-2.

"At Ākhaṇḍācaļa in Raṇapura I reside. Padmanābha Narēndra supports me. I am born of the Çūdra caste. Having received initiation (into Vaiṣṇavism), I stay among the Gauras; and teach and preach to all the Gōpālas (Gauras), taking refuge at the feet of Çrī-Hari. Among the Gauras I am called Mahata. The husband of Kamaļā (i. e., the god Hari) has taken mercy upon me. This prayer to Çrī Gōpīnātha's feet—Oh yellow-robed!—preserve the poet Acyuta Dāsa. The seven-volumed Harivamça is finished; Acyuta Dāsa meditates on Lord Gōvinda's feet."

Hunter's list (Vol. II, p. 197) credits this Acyutānanda Dāsa with a Sapta Bhāgabata which is evidently a mistake for the Sātakhaṇḍi-ā Haribaṁsa. The list also ascribes two smaller pieces to him: (1) Ananta Gōyi or the eternal mystery, and (2) Acyutānanda Mālikā or the prophecies of Acyutānanda.

The other religious works in Oriya are, as might be expected in the land of Jaganuātha, mostly Vaiṣṇavite. They may be roughly divided into:—

- (1) Paurāṇic, such as translations of Çiva Purāṇa, Padma Purāṇa, Mārkaṇḍa Purāṇa, and of the various periodical Māhātmyas, as Kārttika, Māgha, Vaiçākha, Ekādaçī;
- (2) Poems, as Dharaṇī Dhara's translation of Gītagōvinda, and the translation of Haṁsadūta;
- (3) Jagannātha worship—as Guṇḍicābijē or the procession of Jagannātha on his car to Guṇḍicā, the summer house; Dārubrahma, and the Dē-ōla Tōlā—an account of the origin of the god and his temple; translation of Puruṣōttama Māhātmya, etc.

These works appeared later, and have no such special literary merits as to deserve detailed notice. In the next part will be treated the chief Oṛiyā poets and this will conclude my sketch of Oṛiyā literature.

In Oriya pronunciation, the consonants v, y, and c are hardened to b, j, and z respectively; hence the difference in transliteration.

#### PART IV. THE LATER ORIYA POETS.

#### GENERAL REMARKS.

The works of the following authors will be dealt with in this article. They form the most important part of the Oriyā literature.

- 1. Dīnakṛṣṇa Dāsa ( दीनक्षण दास ).
- 2. Upēndra Bhañja (ভটন্র মস্ত্র).
- 3. Bhūpati Paṇḍita ( सूपति पण्डित ).
- 4. Bhaktacarana Dāsa ( भक्तचरण दास ).
- 5. Bisvanātha Khuņți-ā ( विश्वनाथ खुण्डिया ).
- 6. Lökanātha Dāsa ( लोकनाथ दास ).
- 7. Sadānanda Kavisūryabrahmā ( सदानन्द कविस्त्रयंत्रसा ).
- 8. Abhimanyu Sāmantasimhāra (श्राभमन्य सामनासिंदार).

In the treatment of the subject-matter, etc., the poets differ so little from one another, that a few preliminary remarks will suffice to point out the general characteristics of Oriyā poetry, and enable me to dispense with the detailed discussion of each poem. The remarks may be noted under the following heads:—

- (a) The subject-matter.
- (b) The versification.
- (c) The sentiment.

On examining the narrative parts of these poems, two general tendencies are perceptible, one religious, the other fictional. The religious tendency is exclusively Vaiṣṇavite. By the time serious compositions had been begun in Oṛiyā, Çivaism in spite of its stronghold at Bhuvanēçvara, and Çāktism in spite of its prevalence at Jājapura, had ceased to influence the popular mind. Viṣṇu-worship was in full swing and naturally Oṛiyā poetry reflected this popular bent.

Viṣṇu was worshipped in various forms. One such form was Jagannātha, whose temple and worship at Purī still attract thousands of pilgrims. His rites were well-known to the above authors, who either resided at Purī or visited it on pilgrimage. Upēndra Bhañja translated into Oṛiyā verse the local Māhātmya, and Dīnakṛṣṇa described the well-known Ratha festival in his Guṇḍicābijē. In spite, however, of the veneration for Jagannātha in Orissa, his worship failed to be a great religion because it had no great epic or Purāṇa to fall back upon, and because it had no special organisation to propagate its doctrines. The priests and their agents busied themselves mainly in drawing pilgrims to the shrine and not in proselytising them into a sect; while no great scholar or preacher arose to elaborate the dogmas in any famous poem or religious work.

Rāma-worship, another variant of Vaiṣṇavism was somewhat more successful in Oṛiyā poetry. The Rāmayaṇa has always been the most favourite of Sanskrit poems; and the Rāmāts who came on pilgrimage or resided at Purī in the various maths generally exercised considerable influence. Hence the career of Rāma was often selected for the subjectmatter, such as Upēndra Bhañja's Baidēhīsabiļāsa, Bisvanātha Khuṇṭi-ā's Bicitra Rāmāyaṇa, Sadāsiba Dāsa's Rāmalīļā. But on the whole, it failed to be popular in Orissa because the Rāmāts were few in number and chiefly confined to Purī, and because it had to contend with the powerful influence of Caitanya and his disciples.

The most prevalent form of Vaiṣṇavism was and still is in Orissa the Kṛṣṇa-worship. I shall not burden this article with the origin and history of this great religion, interesting as the subject is, because long before the beginning of serious poetry, Kṛṣṇa-worship had become the favourite religion in Orissa. But since then Kṛṣṇa-worship underwent an important modification. Gradually a feminine element was added to the male type of divinity, and the worship of Kṛṣṇa alone was superceded by the joint worship of Rādhā and Kṛṣṇa. A similar and parallel transformation from the single to the dual type is traceable in the gradual development of Çivaism into Çāktism, and also in the Buddhistic hierarchy.

The name of Rādhā is comparatively modern. It is not to be found either in the Vēdic works or in the older Sanskrit classics and Purāṇas. The Harivamça, the Bhāgavata and the Viṣṇu Purāṇa, the triple Bible of the Vaiṣṇavites, are silent about her. The earliest authentic mention of Rādhā is to be found in the Brahmavaivarta Purāṇa and in Jayadēva's Gītagōvinda. Brahmavaivarta's date is

l The following passage of Çrīmadbhāgavata is twisted to mean a reference to Rādhā, but obviously it does not.

# श्रनयाराधितो नूनं भगवान् इरिरीश्वरः। यद्गो विद्याय गोविन्दः प्रीतो यामनयद्गदः॥ २३॥

Bh. 10th Sk. 30th Adh. 23rd Çlōka.

"Evidently God Hari was devoutly prayed by this (lady), for Govinda has taken her (alone) to privacy leaving us behind."

Another passage (same Adhyāya 34th Çlōka) is quoted by the author of Caitanyacaritāmṛta as referring to Rādhā, but the text does not even mention her (Ādilīlā 6th parichēda).

<sup>2</sup> In Laghubhāgavatāmṛta, Rūpa Gōsvāmī quotes one passage as being from Padma Purāṇa.

# यथा राधा प्रियाविष्णोस्तस्याः कुण्डं प्रियं तथा। सर्व्वगोपीषू सैवैका विष्णोरत्यन्तवस्नभा॥

l. c. Cai. Car. Mr. Adilīla 4th pari.

unknown, probably not earlier than tenth century A.D. Jayadēva flourished in the twelfth century. Rādhā-worship cannot therefore be earlier than ninth century and possibly later. She appears to have been evolved out of the Tāntric wave in East India, which gave rise to the worship of Tārā and Vajra-Yōginī in Buddhism, and to that of Durgā and Kālī in Çivaism.

The prevalence of Rādhā-worship in Orissa is largely due to the Bengal Vaiṣṇavites. Jayadēva's exquisite poem was much appreciated by Oriyā scholars, and five hundred years ago was ordered by the king Pratāpa Rudra to be sung every evening before Jagannātha to the exclusion of all other songs. Jayadēva's example in treating Rādhā as divine was followed in the Bengali vernacular by other poets, such as Bidyāpati, Caṇḍī Dās, Gōbinda Dās. Then came Caitanya, the great preacher of Nabadvīp. Partly influenced by the above poets and partly by the Vallabhācāris at Mathurā, he took to preaching Rādhā-cultism, and was ably assisted by his numerous disciples in Orissa and elsewhere. The worship of Rādhā became the most prominent part of his rituals, and after his death he himself came to be regarded as an incarnation jointly of Rādhā and Kṛṣṇa.¹ The preachings of Caitanya and his

"As Rādhā is the favourite of Viṣṇu, so her Kuṇḍa is his favourite. Among all the Gōpīs she alone is the most beloved of Viṣṇu."

The passage seems spurious. Padma Purāna is notorious for its large later additions, and even then no second çlōka is forthcoming in that voluminous work about Rādhā. Besides, Kṛṣṇa and not Viṣṇu should be associated with her. Furthermore if the author of Caitanyacaritāmṛta is to be believed (Madhyalīlā, 18th parichēda), Rādhā-Kuṇḍa was first discovered by Caitanya, and hence could not have been mentioned in Padma Purāṇa composed several centuries earlier.

Another passage is sometimes quoted to indicate the antiquity of Rādhā (Bṛhadgautamīya Tantra).

## देवीक्रव्णमयीप्रीक्ता राधिका परदेवता। सर्व्यक्तस्मीमयी सर्व्यकान्तिः सन्मोदिनी परा॥

"Dēvī Rādhikā, it is said, is rapt in Kṛṣṇa, the highest divinity, possessor of all prosperity and beauty, all-charming, the highest."

If the cloka be genuine, it does not affect my arguments. The date of Brhad-gautamiya Tantra is uncertain, but it cannot be much old, as all Tantras are comparatively modern and generally date from eighth century downwards.

राधाक्रव्णप्रणयविक्वतिक्वीदिनीमित्तरसा-देकात्मनाविष भवि पुरा देचभेदङ्गतौ तौ। चैतन्याख्यां प्रकटमधुना तदुद्वयञ्चित्वमाप्तं राधाभावयुतिसुवित्तं नौमि क्रव्णखरुपं॥

Rūpa Gōsvāmi's Karacā, l. c. Cait. Car. Ādilīlā, 4th pari.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Rādhā is but transformation of Kṛṣṇa's love, his hlādinī power. Essentially

disciples made numerous converts in Orissa who now pass as Gauriyās, and further more created a religious ferment that gave rise to several subsects, such as Atibaris, Bindudhāris, Kabirājis, Kāļindi Vaiṣṇavas, and others. All of them accept the dual type (Rādhā-Kṛṣṇa) as their fundamental doctrine.

This change in the popular religious feelings acted on the poets. The songs were influenced quickly as they needed little learning and represented the first ebullitions. The chief poets were affected more slowly, because all of them knew Sanskrit, and the Bhagavata and Harivamça were silent about Rādhā. The earlier poets Dīnakṛṣṇa, Upēndra Bhañja, and Bhaktacarana dealt but little about her. Dīnakṛṣṇa's Rasakallōļa, Rādhā is named only in three places. Upēndra Bhanja rarely mentions her in his voluminous compositions. In Mathurā-Mangaļa two cantos are devoted to Rādhā (28th and 29th); but otherwise she is mentioned in three places only. Pandita's Prēmapañcāmṛṭa, the divine importance ofRādhā had been fully established, but other Gopis are still given some prominence. In the two latest poets, Sadānanda Kavisūryabrahmā, and Abhimanyu Sāmantasimhāra, Rādhā-worship superseded even Kṛṣṇa, and the other Gopis sank into insignificance. Their poems are full of her praises.

The other tendency in the selection of the subject-matter was towards fiction, purely imaginary stories as distinguished from the mythological. This fictional element was less strong, and appeared later both Imaginary tales were usually of two kinds, in Sanskrit and Vernacular. viz., a collection of short tales stringed together by a slight connecting thread, or a continuous story with a hero and a heroine. In Sanskrit several examples of the first kind may be found, such as the Pancatantra and its variant the Hitopadeça, the Brhatkatha (as known in the version Kathāsaritsāgara), and Daçakumāracarita, with which may be compared the Buddhistic Jātaka stories and the Sanskrito-Buddhistic Avadānakalpalatā. In Oriyā such a type is wanting. nearest approach to it is to be found in Dînakṛṣṇa's Pratāpasindhu which is a collection of maxims and short stories like the Pancatantra. The other kind which is best exemplified in Sanskrit by Subandhu's Vāsavadattā and Bāna's Kādambarī, found a more fruitful soil in Upendra Bhanja composed some twenty romances, while the Oriyā.

one, (for enjoyment) they appeared before in two separate bodies. They two have now appeared in one named Caitanya. Him, so full of Rādhā's sentiments and brightness, and so filled with Kṛṣṇa's attributes, I salute."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Rasakallōla 10th Ch. l. 10 (cf. ls. 1-16); 20th Ch. l. 18 (cf. 1-24); 31st Ch. l. 1, (cf. ls. 1-18 30th Ch.).

poems of Lōkanātha and the three early poems of Abhimanyu are purely fictional. Poems of similar nature are also mentioned in Hunter's list, such as Balabhadra Bhañja's Bhābabatī, Haricandra Dēva's Līļābatī, Padmaļābha Dēva's Prabhābatī. Their contents are however yet unknown.

The framework of the romances is practically so uniform that it may be generalised by the following sketch. The story opens with the description of a beauteous girl attending on Pārvatī or Rādhā (Lakṣmī) Some prince (occasionally a Rsi) sees her and falls in love with her who returns his love. For this Pārvatī or Rādhā curses her to take birth as woman; but on her entreaties changes the curse to human life with the lover as husband. The girl is born as a princess, and the lover as a prince. Their childhood and youth are then describ-The one hears of the other, and falls in love. manœuvring they meet and fall more deeply in love. This gradually leads to marriage (occasionally Gandharva marriage). A few months are spent in happiness, and then the lovers are separated by a deus ex machina. Each is obliged to live one year apart from the other. Several cantos then describe the griefs of the lovers and their passionate outbursts as one season passes and the other arrives. By grace of the goddess they are re-united and henceforth live a happy life. They become king and queen, and after death are taken back into the heavens.

The next head is versification which includes the prosody, the selection of words and their signification—in short the outer frame of poetry as distinguished from the inner spirit. An Oriya poem is divided into parts which are named Chānda (canto); and the Chānda is divided into padas (stanzas) that are made up of two to six lines. All the lines rhyme; blank verses are unknown. The pādas can often be scanned according to rules of Sanskrit prosody, but sometimes they are not. This arises from the fact that all Oriva poetry, if not translations of Sanskrit religious works, are intended to be sung, and not simply to be read. Hence many padas cannot be scanned, if simply read; while in singing there arises no difficulty, as the vowels may be shortened or lengthened according to the convenience of the singer. For this reason too, the Chandas are much shorter than the cantos of Sanskrit classics, not generally containing more than a hundred padas. Each Chanda is also set to a tune. These tunes are largely Sanskritic, but have also a fair number of local airs, as I have already pointed out under the head of songs.

As regards the selection and signification of words the Oriyā poets follow the rules of Sanskrit rhetoric as closely as the language permits.

Hence verbal formations and word jingles, which are reckoned as excellences in Sanskrit rhetorics, freely abound. The entire canto, or the entire poem begins every line with the one and same letter, as ka, ba, ca; or each stanza begins with the consecutive letters of the alphabet (a to ksa); or they have lines without any vowel except a or without any conjunct consonants at all. Alliterations, and other kinds of repetitions of the same letters or group of letters (yamakas or anuprāsas) are lavishly used. Similes (upamās), metaphors (rūpakas), opposite meanings (virōdhabhāṣas), double and triple meanings, allusions to and analogies from Sanskrit classics are scattered "thick as leaves in Vallombrosa." The Oriyā language being too simple and too undeveloped to bear so much ornamentation, the poets have borrowed profusely from the immense vocabulary of Sanskrit with its numberless synonyms, antonyms and compound formations. The wild luxuriance of these rhetorical forms in Oriya poetry it is impossible to describe; but some idea may be formed by studying the Kōṭibrahmāṇḍasundarī of Upēndra Bhañja and the Bidagdhacintāmanī of Abhimanyu Sāmantasimhāra.

Many of these formations are real poetic excellences, and many a line show pretty conceits, surprising fancies, appropriate illustrations, or happy combinations of words. They generally indicate a fairly complete mastery over Sanskrit rules and vocabulary. One's admiration is further enhanced, when he takes into consideration the imperfections of the vernacular and the general ignorance of the mass. At the same time the inordinate use of unfamiliar words and word-combinations and the constant straining after mere verbal excellences have produced various defects, such as unintelligibility, artificiality, over-ornamentation, and unsuccessful formations. Hardly any poem can be understood without a  $t\bar{t}k\bar{a}$  or commentary, and hence the lines lose the force and the vividness of impression that common familiar words would have Then again the too exclusive attention to ornamentation of conveyed. words—the mere husk and shell of poetry—has led to the neglect of the inner essence, and has made the poets careless about the natural development of plots, the evolution of characters, or the enframing of high thoughts.

Hence under the third head—the sentiment—the workmanship was in general crude, incoherent and not elevating. The ideal followed was that adopted in the later Sanskrit classics (Naiṣadha, Çiçupālavadha). This Sanskrit ideal was defective compared with modern standard. Humour was wanting entirely. Vigor and energy were absent in the male characters, and a low view of women was inculcated. The characters were not properly and consistently developed. The action of the

external events on human feelings and thoughts was not often painted in a careful or powerful fashion. On account of the low view of women, obscene descriptions crept in, descriptions which would not be tolerated in any modern works. All these defects were intensified in the Oṛiyā poems. Obscenities were multiplied. The hero becomes an unnatural man, selfish, exclusively bent on gratifying his sensual passions, and bursting into tears or passionate outbursts at slight obstacles. The heroine is painted with the same brush, impatient, without any self-restraint or self-sacrificing spirit so well-known in Indian wives and mothers, and as much inclined as the hero to gratify the physical desires. In truth the Oṛiyā poets busied themselves so much with polishing and decorating the outer frame, that they quite neglected to develop the inner spirit.

### Dīnakņsņa Dāsa.

With these general remarks, I now proceed to discuss the poets individually. The earliest poet is Dīnakṛṣṇa Dāsa. Very little is known about him. According to traditions gathered at Puri, Dinakṛṣṇa is older than Upēndra Bhañja. The latter's Baidēhīsabiļāsa is said to have been modelled after Rasakallola; and when the similarity was pointed out to Upendra by his father, he composed his well-known poem Lābanyabatī. A couplet is repeated in which Dīnakṛṣṇa questions as an elder poet, and Upendra replies obediently as a younger poet. A pair of couplets are repeated in which Upendra Bhanja refers with respect to Dinakṛṣṇa.1 A consideration of the style and the subject-matter lends support to this traditional priority of Dīnakṛṣṇa. Upēndra Bhañja flourished about the end of the seventeenth century; Dinakrana's date might therefore be taken as the third quarter of that century. He cannot be much older. For apart from tradition, his Rasakallōļa refers to Rukmaņī Cautisā which is evidently based on Jagannātha Dāsa's Bhāgabata—a work of the second quarter of the This fact points to a difference of at least one sixteenth century. hundred years between Jagannātha Dāsa and the author of Rasakallola.

> उपइन्द्र बीरवर टेक्ति वेनि वाहाकु। रिवतळे किवपणे न गणइ काहाकु॥ जयदेव दीनक्षम्ण पारे मोर ग्ररण। खाउ सबु किविद्वार माथे वाम चरण॥

"Bīrabara Upēndra, raising his arms, deems none a real poet under the sun. I pay my obeisance at the feet of Jayadēva and Dīnakṛṣṇa, but put my left leg on the heads of all the other poets."

According to Purī traditions, he was a Bharu-ā, an illegitimate class attending on dancing girls and playing on musical instruments in accompaniment to their dancing and singing. He led at first a struggling life, and later on became a Vaiṣṇava. He is said to have resided at Purī and died there. Corroboration of these facts is found in his works. His illegitimacy partially explains his great humility, and probably led him to select Vasiṣṭha as the speaker in his Pratāpasindhu. Vasiṣṭha was known to the author as the son of a prostitute. His Vaiṣṇavite tendency and his residence at Purī his works fully show. For unknown reasons he was absent from Purī for some time, as a couple of stanzas? in the Rasakallōla would seem to indicate. He knew Jagannātha and his daily services intimately. Dīnakṛṣṇa is said not to be his original name, but to have been given at the time of his initiation as a Vaiṣṇava.

Dīnakṛṣṇa composed several works, of which I have seen in

1 The poet remarks that every object in this world has some defect or other:—

# निकळक्क पद्म के पार गरि (?)। कळक्क पुणि सबुठारे खरि ॥ १०६॥

"Who can find out a nelumbium without stain? Blots are found in every object."

Then he goes on illustrating this. After quoting several examples he says:-

## विसष्ठ ऋसिङ्क कळङ्क अक्रि।

वेग्रापुत्र वोलि समस्ते वाकि ॥ १८६ ॥ Pratāpasindhu MS., Fol. 14.

"(Even) Vasistha Rsi has his blot. He is known to all as a prostitute's son."

करिथिला आग्र, से चेचे निवास, करिवाकु दीनक्रम्ण।

कि अभाग्यु तिहँ, न पारिला रिह,

प्रमु नोहिली सहया॥ २६॥

कर्मे थिला यादा, भोग हेला ताहा,

के ताचा करिव चान।

करमकरता, कद्वच्यदाता,

येवे नो हिले प्रसन्न ॥ २०॥ R. K., 24th Ch., p. 89.

"To reside in that kṣētra (land), Dīnakṛṣṇa had wished; what bad fate is hishe could not stay there, the Lord not favouring. [26]. What was in his fate, he has to suffer. Who can do otherwise, if fate's master, the giver of salvation, smileth not upon him? [27]."

<sup>8</sup> Rasakallola, 19th Ch., 14-24; Gundicabije, and others.

manuscript Pratāpasindhu, and in print Rasakallōla, Guṇḍicābijē and Ārtatrāṇa Cautisā.¹ Guṇḍicābijē describes the car festival of Jagannātha; Ārtatrāṇa Cautisā is a prayer to Jagannātha for deliverance. Pratāpasindhu is larger and occupies in manuscript 131 folios with three lines on each page. The poem purports to have been delivered by the sage Vasiṣṭha in answer to Daçaratha. It contains maxims mostly culled from Sanskrit, with illustrative examples and stories. Occasionally Sanskrit çlōkas are quoted and translated. The versification is simple and has no special merit. Among maxims a very low view of woman's reliability is prominent.

It is on Rasakallöla that Dīnakṛṣṇa's fame rests. The work is in 34 Chāndas with 20 to 99 stanzas in each. Its subject-matter is the early pastoral life of Çrī-Kṛṣṇa and is based on the 10th Skandha of the Bhāgavata. The first Chānda is introductory; the 2nd to 10th deal with the birth and adolescence of Kṛṣṇa; 11th to 17th describe the various seasons beginning with winter and the amorous sports of Çrī-Kṛṣṇa with the Gōpīs in each season; 18th to 24th poetise the Rasalīlā or the dance and dalliance of Kṛṣṇa and the Gōpīs in the groves of Bṛṇdābana; 25th to 29th narrate his march to Mathurā and the slaying of its demon king Kamsa; the last five cantos are taken up in describing the griefs of Kṛṣṇa and of the Gōpīs on account of separation, and the embassy of Urdhaba to Bṛṇdābana under orders of Kṛṣṇa. The plot is thus familiar to most and appeals strongly to the religious instinct of the highly conservative Oṛiyās.

In versification the peculiarity of Rasakallola is that every line of a stanza begins with one and same letter ka—a very difficult task in the case of a whole poem. On the whole, however, the sentences are more intelligible than in many poems of Upendra Bhañja. Good descriptions of natural sceneries, though of the conventional type, are not rare; while poetical passages reckoned excellences according to the rules of Sanscrit rhetorics, abound. Some of the closing lines are personal,

l Hunter's list names nine more:—Cakradharabiļāsa, Madhusudanabiļāsa, Madhabakara Gītā, Bāramāsa Kō-iļi, Jagamōhana, Sāmudrika, Guṇa Sāgara, Ujjvaļanīlamaṇikārikā, Rādhā Kanaca (?), Dvādasakuñjalīļā, and Kṛṣṇa Dāsa Baļi. I have seen in print Bāramāsa Kō-iļi; it is not Dīna Kṛṣṇa's. I have also seen in manuscript a Guṇa Gnyāna Sāgara of one Bhābi-ā Dāsa. Some of the works enumerated, such as the medical works, are not probably of Dīnakṛṣṇa.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> For some of the rhetorically fine passages the reader may be referred to the description of the various seasons (11th, 12th, 15th and 17th Chāndas), and to the description of Rādhā's beauty (10th Chānda). In mere rhetorical excellences, however, the author cannot vie with Upēndra Bhañja or Abhimanyu Sāmantasimhāra.

and are much soberer and often forcible. Two such passages which are free from obscenity are extracted to give an idea of his poetry.

1. कोटिए कोटि कीटे मूँ एक।

केते मोर बुद्धि केते विवेक॥ ३॰॥
केखवा लेखिव गगन तारा।
केखवा गणिव बरषाधारा॥
के संख्या करिव सिन्धुलहरी।
के पारिव पयोनिधि पहाँर॥
केखवा एहा करि पारिव।
कुष्ण महिमा कहि न पारिव॥ ३९॥

R. K. 5th Chānda, p. 16.

"In the midst of crores after crores of insects I am only one. How little is my intelligence, my power of moral discrimination. [30]. Who can write out the stars of the sky; who can count the raindrops; who can take stock of the sea waves; who can dare swim across the ocean? even this may be possible; but the glory of Kṛṣṇa none can describe. [31]."

2. किल ये तुम्म नाम कुसुम, यतन किर माळा सुसम
ताहा मूलाइ नेवाकु के हि नो हिले ह्या है।
केवळ माळाकार पराये सूहिंत न घेनिलि घोकाए
के छिल नेव काहा करम एड़े उत्तम है।
के हि नाहिं वे छित धिम्म झवन्त ये।
किरिवाकु ए माळ कार्छ लिखत है।
किरिवाकु मने विचार एते, जगत याक छाइन्ति येते
सामवेदिङ्क ब्रत वेग्र ए हैले सन्तत ये। २०।
R. K. 16th Chanda, p. 63.

"(Oh Lord!) The name-flowers of thine I have strung with care into a lovely wreath, which none is so fit to take by paying its equivalent. Like the wreath-maker, I myself could not take even a part; who so fortunate, that would take it? None there is all round so braided-haired (i.e., blessed), that can put this garland round his neck. Thus am I thinking in my mind,—the people of this world have constantly become habited like the Sāmabēdists, (i.e. shavelings, and therefore unfit to put on the garland). [27]."

### BHAKTACARANA DĀSA.

As Mathurāmangaļa appears to be a supplement of Rasakallōļa that work will be taken up here, though strictly it might be somewhat later than Upēndra Bhañja's poems. The author calls himself Bhaktacaraṇa Dāsa. No traditions are available about him. He repeatedly calls himself a bairāgi. He probably visited Purī, for he mentions the "Guṇḍicābijē" of Jagannātha (10th Chānda, stanza 6). The name Bhaktacaraṇa seems to be an adopted name after initiation into Vaiṣṇavism.

The Mathurāmangala is a poem in 30 Chāndas with 14 to 106 stanzas in each. The subject-matter is the exploits of Çrī-Kṛṣṇa at Mathurā. These exploits have been described in Rasakallōla, 25th to 33rd Chāndas, but is here amplified into 29 cantos. Hence this poem appears to be later, though from the prominence still given to Gōpīs generally, it could not have been much later. Its date might be approximately put to the first quarter of the 18th century. In versification and sentiment the author appears to have closely imitated the Rasakallōla. The verses are simpler, and less loaded with Sanskrit words; but have on the whole much less poetical excellences than in Dīnakṛṣṇa's poem. The author is rather peculiar in heaping similes to illustrate the same idea, an example of which is quoted below<sup>2</sup>:—

कृष्ण वोलिन शुण रमणीवन्द।
कपूर समान कि मास्सर गन्ध गो।
पद्म समान का हिं हेव कुटज।
समान कला लोक सिना निर्ह्मच्छ। १०।
पाट टसर का हिं समान मूळ।
हीरा सङ्गे स्कटिक हेव कि तूळ।
पित्तळ नोहे कळधउत सम।
चन्द्र पारुपो का हिं रहिव तम॥ ११॥
से हिव तुम्भ के उँ गुणरे सरि।

Math. Man. 8th Chanda, p. 23.

"Kṛṣṇa said—"Hear, oh ye ladies! Can bhāskara (the ordinary camphor) smell as well as Çri-karpura (the essence of camphor); can

<sup>1</sup> Math. Man. 3rd Ch. 26; 13th Ch. 16; 15th Ch. 22; 18th Ch. 16; 23rd Ch. 54; 29th Ch. 38.

<sup>2</sup> For another example of such heaping, see 9th Chanda 11-15, p. 26.

the wild flower bear comparison to the nelumbium? The man that puts them on the same level must be shameless. [10]. Can jute have the same value as silk; can glass be compared to diamond? Brass cannot be equal to silver; darkness cannot stay where the moon is. Similarly what ladies of Mathurā can equal ye (Gōpa girls)?"

### Внираті Рауріта.

The early Oṛiyā poems about Kṛṣṇa may be completed with Bhūpati Paṇḍita's Prēmapañcāmṛta. In the last Adhyāya of that work the author gives an account of himself.¹ A Sārasvata Brāhmin from up-country he came to Orissa and attended the court of the king Divyasimha Dēva. His poetical talents so much pleased the king that he gave him land with cash. He resided at Rathipura Kaṭaka. Caitanya Dāsa, a Vaiṣṇava at Purī was his great friend, and under his instructions he composed the poem. Its writing was finished on Monday evening, the çukla trayōdaçī of the month makara, 18th aŋka of the king Dibyasimha Dēva. According to Prof. Jacobi's Tables taken with Mādaļā Pāñji,² makara çukla trayōdaçī fell on Monday, the 3rd February, 1707 A.D. Bhūpati Paṇḍita is thus a contemporary of Upēndra Bhañja.

The Prēmapañcāmṛta is a religious poem in ten Adhyāyas, and has been printed. It describes the rasalīlā of Çrī-Kṛṣṇa and the Gōpīs, but the original story has been amplified by the description of an imaginary pilgrimage of Vaṣudēva (7th Adhy.) and by metaphysical disquisitions of the Caitanya's school. The lines are bald and generally unornamented. The versification is of the style adopted by Jagannātha Dāsa in his Bhāgabata. An extract is given here to show the author's conceptions about Rādhā:—

परम खात्मा भगवान। राधिका जीव खात्मा जाण ॥ ३॥ राधिका खंग्रे येते गोपी। से स्राण्ण जीवन खरूपी॥ ४॥ परमे मिश्रि पारे जीव। खानकु खंटे खसम्भव॥ ५॥ जीव परम एक जाण। भोग संयोगे भिन्न भिन्न॥ ६॥ येसने बीज वेनिपाळ। एक से नुहृन्ति युगळ॥ ०॥ दि खर्ड एक पूर्ण होइ। एण से एक खड़ दुइ॥ ८॥ ये पारे गोपी खड़े पिश्रि। से पारे स्राण्ण खड़े मिश्रि॥ ६॥

2nd Adhyāya, p. 11.

<sup>1</sup> The passage (10th Adhyāya lines 194-238), though long is interesting, and is given in extenso in App. III.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See App. IV. for "the later kings of Khōrdā" beginning with this Divyasimha Dēva.

"Bhagabāna is the parama ātmā (the Highest Being); Rādhikā is Jīva ātmā (the Individual Being). [3]. The Gōpīs in the Rādhikā's portion, are but so much life of Kṛṣṇa. [4]. The Individual can be absorbed into the Highest (i.e. the Infinite); for others, this is impossible. [5]. Know that the Individual and the Infinite are one (in essence), and different only in enjoyment and union. [6]. Just as a seed is bilobed; but really single and not double; [7], both halves forming one whole, and hence one body divided into two. [8]. He who can get into the body of the Gōpīs, can get absorbed into the body of Kṛṣṇa. [9]."

### UPĒNDRA BHAÑJA.

The fictional school begins with UPENDRA BHAÑJA. He is the most famous of Oṛiyā poets. His time can be ascertained approximately. In his Rasalēkhā he wrote—

# दिख सिंच गजपति अङ्ग सपत विंग्रति ग्रेषदिने ग्रेष एक्क गीत।

R. L. 22nd Chānda, l. 17, p. 96.

"This poem was finished on the last date of the 27th Anka of the Gajapati king Divyasimha." Divyasimha began to rule in 1692-93,¹ and his 27th Anka or 21st year fell in 1713-4 A.D. The last date of the anka (simha çukla ēkādaçī) was 21st August, 1714 A.D., a Tuesday. As Rasalēkhā appears to have been one of his later poems, Upēndra Bhañja may be said to have flourished in the beginning of the 18th century.

He belonged to the royal family of Gumusara. Gumusara is a petty hill state forming the north-westernmost corner of the District Ganjām, Presidency Madras. The surname Bhañja was the patronymic title of the family. The author names his ancestors in Rasapañcaka last page as follows <sup>2</sup>:—

1 For a discussion of his reign see App. IV. "The later kings of Khōrdā."

<sup>2</sup> कञ्चेम वंग, होइ प्रकाम । क्रामे घुमुसरे हेले नरेम ॥ १६ ॥ कुन्देन्द्रकी ति, रणरण कान्ति । रणेश्वर रणभञ्ज ख्यति ॥ कमानु वेज, ताङ्क तनुज । क्रात् प्रताप प्रतापभञ्ज ॥ १० ॥ किन्छ स्त्रत, ताङ्क भूस्टत । किर गोपीनाथ नाम विदित ॥ किन्छ स्त्रत, ताङ्क कुमर । किह्न भनञ्जय नाम ताङ्कर ॥ १८ ॥ काम्यपीकान्त, ताहाङ्क स्त्रत । क्षतज्ञ नीळकण्ड भञ्जस्त ॥ कुमर ज्येष्ठ, ताङ्कर श्रेष्ठ । किन्यणरे श्रुति परिनष्ठ ॥ १८ ॥

Rasapañcaka, printed ed. pp. 89-90.

- 1. Raṇa Bhañja | | son
- 2. Pratāpa Bhañja | youngest son
- 3. Göpînātha son
- **4.** Dhanañjaya | | son
- 5. Nīļakaņtha
  married Kāsyapī
  eldest son
- 6. Upēndra Bhañja.

The Gumusara Bamsābaļī does not mention Upēndra Bhañja, but names his ancestors up to Nīļakaṇṭha. In a colorless manner it narrates a series of intrigues and murders, revolts and civil wars, startling enough even for a melodrama.¹ Dhanañjaya, the grandfather of Upēndra, ruled long, and in his old age like the emperor Shāhjahān turned sensual. He married several wives who had numerous children. When the Rājā became too old, his queens with their sons began to quarrel amongst themselves. The old man, Dhanañjaya, was poisoned by his favourite queen Hāṛu Dē-i, and his death brought on a civil war. Upēndra's father, Nīļakaṇṭha, who was his son by the above Hāṛu Dē-i, succeeded in seizing the throne. But he could rule only for two years. He was attacked on both sides by the partisans of the eldest queen's infant grandson, and was driven out of the kingdom.

Upëndra Bhañja was the eldest son of this unfortunate Nilakantha. In all probability he was old enough to have participated in the

"The family of sun (lotus' master) appearing, gradually became kings in Gumusara. [16]. With fame white like moon and Kunda flower, with glory bright, master of battles, appeared the King Raṇa Bhañja. Of him was born Pratāpa Bhañja, fiery in vigor, from deeds powerful. [17]. His youngest son, by name Göpīnātha, became King. His son was named Dhanañjaya, the poet King. [18]. His son was Nīļakaṇṭha Bhañja the good, the grateful, the husband of Kāsyapī. His eldest and best prince (am I), well-grounded in poetical powers. [19]."

Some of these successions are also mentioned in Lābaṇyabatī, 16th Chānda, stanzas 39-42, p. 65, and Baidēhīsabiļāsa 52nd Ch. lines 47-50, p. 536.

<sup>1</sup> The portion of the Bamsābaļī bearing on Upēndra's ancestors is quoted in extenso in App. V.

fratricidal struggle. After expulsion Nīļakantha settled, according to tradition, in the adjoining state of Nayāgara. In that state how long Upēndra resided is not known. He visited the Puruṣōttama Kṣēttra apparently frequently, as he knew it intimately. Outside Orissa he might have travelled, of which travel some faint indications are traceable in his poems. By religion he was a Vaiṣṇavite, leaning to Rāma-worship, as his numerous closing lines and the Baidēhīsabilāsa the poem on the career of Rāma testify.

Upēndra Bhañja was a prolific author and composed some forty-three poems. The chronological sequence of these works cannot generally be ascertained. Probably most of the songs were among his earliest compositions, and Caupadibhūṣaṇa is referred to in the early contemporaneous work, Bicitra Rāmāyaṇa. Baidēhīsabiļāsa, according to tradition preceded the Lābaṇyabatī. The Kōṭibrahmāṇḍa-sundarī seems to be a work of matured years. The Citrakābya was composed much later and in its introduction refers to a large number of works, thus establishing a broad line of demarcation in point of time.<sup>3</sup>

1 The following stanza in Rasikahārābaļī (8th Ch. 25th stanza) might have some reference to his father's loss of the throne:—

# राजाङ्ग हेवार राज्य नष्ट। युवाङ्ग हेवार पत्नीभ्रष्ट॥ कहे उपरन्द्र, बीरंबर भञ्ज, रथुँ विल खाउ नाहि कष्ट॥ २५॥

"For a king to lose his kingdom, for a young man to lose his wife—says Upēndra Bhañja Bīrabara—no misfortune can be greater than these. [25]."

- <sup>2</sup> Upēndra translated the Puruṣōttama Māhātmya, and composed the Rasika-hārābaļī, a romance of that place. The Kōṭibrahmāṇḍasundarī also begins with a description of Jagannātha's temple and festivals.
  - ३ रण र किव विचार दिने। किल सू खनेक प्रकाण गिते। १। खग्नेष चलितण चलपदि। ताहा केतेटि किहिव सम्पादि। १०। गाहा दोहा पोल्चेन्द्र कपोर। दत्यादि किवल गणना नाहि। ११। रस्कृष्णविषय येते प्रन्य। चिनोर तह्नं किकि खेंखे येथ। १२। पुराण कांकि कल्पना माधुरि। चारु चित्रकेखा हेममञ्जरी। १३। रस्केखा कामकळा रचित। मनोरमा प्रेमलता सुगित। १४। भाववती मुक्तावती प्रमाण। वरजलीळा ये कान्द्रभूषण। १५। षड्चतु कळाकलतुकर। किनयम साद्य सुभद्रासार। १६। वैदेहीण विळास सेहि वाद्य। प्रसिद्ध खवना द्वादण कान्द। १०। रामलीळास्त खेष रचित। प्रेमसुधानिधि यमके स्थित। १८। रिकहारावळी नामे गीत। कुञ्जविद्यारादि ख्वामचरित। १८। खळक्कार रीति रसपञ्चक। लावण्वती रिक्कतोषक। २०। प्रकृतान माहात्यार रचन। नाना कोष एव्दे गीताभिधान। २१।

Thirty-two poems are herein named. In addition Hunter's list specifies the following:—Candrakaļā, Candrarēkhā, Icchābatī, Kaļābatī, Rahāsalīļā, Rasamañjarī, Saŋgītakaumudī, Sasīrēkhā, Sōbhābatī and Subarṇarēkhā. The last I have seen, and in one passage it admits its posterity by referring to Rasikahārābaļī and Prēmasudhānidhi.

All these works cannot be discussed in detail in this limited article, but their subject-matters may be classified in the following way:—

- A. Songs:
  - 1. Cautisā (ঘভনিমা).
  - 2. Caupadībhūṣaṇa (चजपदीभूषण).

कान्द कोटि तारा चन्द्रमा परि। या नाम कोटिव्रह्माण्डसुन्दरी। २२। चैलोक्यमोहिनी चादि ये गीत। निर्मित कान्द पोथि पाच सात। २३।

एते प्रकारे करि कान्द गीत। चित्र कविले वळाइला चित्त। २०।

Citrakāvya MS. Folio 1.

"The poet thus thinks in his mind-many pieces did I publish in poetry. [9]. No end of Cautisās and Caupadīs, what more can I say on them? [10]. Gāhā, döhā, södacēndu chapō-i, and other poems that cannot be counted. [11]. Of works on rasa and on Kṛṣṇa recollecting, I name here some. [12]. Sifting the Purāṇas, such works of sweet imagination, as the fine Citralekha, the Hemamanjari [13]; the Rasalēkhā, the well-composed Kāmakaļā, the Manoramā, and the well-versified Prēmalatā [14], the Bhābabatī, the well-exemplified Muktābatī, the Barajalīļā, the Chāndabhāṣaṇa [15], the Ṣarartu, the ka-initialled Kaļākautuka, the sa-initialled Subhadrāsāra [16], the ba-initialled Baidēhīsabiļāsa, the well-known twelve chandas without any consonant or vowels conjunctions [17], the Rāmalīļāmṛta full of many meanings, the Prēmasudhānidhi full of alliterations [18], the poem named Rasikahārābaļī, the lives of Syāma as Kunjabihāra and others [19], the Rasapancaka illustrating rules of rhetoric, the Lābaṇyabatī the delight of wits [20], the composition of the Purusottamamāhātmya, the various dictionaries of words as the Gītābhidhāna [21], the Kōṭibrahmāṇḍasundarī like a moon among millions of poetical stars [22], the poems beginning with the Trailokyamohini; some such five or seven poems have I composed [23]. Having composed poems of so many kinds, my thoughts strayed towards illustrated poetry [27.]"

> पाञ्च कान्दे भेष होइला ए रम करिव रिमक वस्र। हे जने प्रेमसुधानिधि रिमक हारावळीर ए भेष। १८। सुवर्ण रेखार वर्णना येतेक रसे एक तिनि गीत। कहे जपदन्द्र भञ्ज वीरवर अनुभव ए विदित। १६।

> > Sub. Rēk., 5th Chanda.

"This rasa comes to its end in five cantos; it will sway the wits. Oh men! Here is finished the  $Pr\bar{e}masudh\bar{a}nidhi$ , and the  $Rasikah\bar{a}r\bar{a}bal\bar{i}$ . [18]. All the rasas in the descriptions of the  $Suvarnar\bar{e}kh\bar{a}$  are to be found in the three poems; this is felt and known—so says Upēndra Bhañja Bīrabara [19]."

- 3. Caupadicandra (चजपदीचन्द्र).
- 4. Chapō-i (क्पोइ).
- 5. Gāhā (गाहा).
- 6. Dōhā (दोहा).

## B. Mythological poems:-

- 7. Abanā Rasataranga (अवना रसतरङ्ग).
- 8. Brajaliļa (ব্লজভীক্তা).
- 9. Subhadrāsāra or Subhadrāpariņaya (सभद्रासार वा सभद्रापरिण्य).
- 10. Kaļākautuka (कळाकोतुक).
- 11. Baidēhīsabiļāsa (वैदेही शविळास).
- 12. Rāmaliļāmṛta (रामजीळासत).
- 13. Kunjabihāra (ক্সন্ত্রবিদ্বার).
- 14. Purusottama Māhātmya (पुरुषोत्तम साहात्मा).
- 15. Rāhāsalīlā (राहामजीळा).

## C. Fictional poems:-

- 16. Citralēkhā (चित्रलेखा).
- 17. Hēmamañjarī (इममञ्जरी).
- 18. Rasalēkhā (रमलेका).
- 19. Kāmakaļā (कामकळा).
- 20. Manoramā (मनोरमा).
- 21. Prēmalatā (प्रेमलता).
- 22. Bhābabatī (भावयती).
- 23. Muktābatī (मृतायती).
- 24. Prēmasudhānidhi (प्रेमसुधानिधि).
- 25. Rasikahārābaļi (रिमक्डारावळी).
- 26. Lābaņyabatī (सावणावती).
- 27. Kötibrahmāndasundarī (कोडिन्न्याण्डसुन्दरी).
- 28. Trailokyamohini (नैलोक्यमोहिनी).
- 29. Candrakaļā (चन्द्रकळा).
- 30. Candrarēkhā (चन्द्रोचा).
- 31. Icchābatī (द्वावती).
- 32. Kaļābatī (कळावती).
- 33. Sasīrēkhā (म्मीरेचा).
- 34. Sobhābatī (शोभावती).
- 35. Subarņarēkhā (सुवर्णरेखा).

## D. Rhetorical, etc.:-

- 36. Chāndabhūṣaṇa (क्रान्टभूषण्).
- 37. Rasapañcaka (रमपश्क).
- 38. Citrakābya (चिनकाश).
- 39. Rasamañjarī (रममञ्जरी).

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- 40. Sangitakaumudi (मङ्गीनकीमुदी).
- 41. Gitābhidhāna (जीताभिधान).
- 42. Şarartu (पर्यत्).

1898.7

It will be seen that 20 out of 42 or nearly half are romances. To Upēndra Bhañja belongs the credit of having been the first to shake off largely the predominating religious tendency. This comparative freedom seems to have arisen partly from his birth in a royal family and partly from his vicissitudes in life, now a prince and now an exile. His stories are no doubt confined to princes or high ministers, and thus belong to the primitive stage of story-telling. Yet they are preferable to the dreary repetitions of mythological absurdities.

As a master of rhetorical excellences he stands higher than all Oriyā poets except Abhimanyu. He knew intimately the Sanskrit rules of elegance, and was a successful follower of the standard set up in the later Sanskrit classics. He was an adept in all kinds of Oriyā verses, writing freely and fully. He was a master-hand in vocabulary and letter-selection. Sometimes he wrote poems without any admixture of vowels other than a, e.g., Abanā Rasataranga; sometimes he limited the initial letters of each line to one letter only, such as ba in Baidehisabiļāsa, ka in Kaļākautuka, sa in Subhadrāpariņaya. Sometimes he used Jamakas throughout a poem, as Prēmasudhānidhi; while Kōṭibrahmāndasundarī sparkles with numerous varieties of rhetorical In spite of innumerable lines of unequal merits due to his prolificness and constant attempt to play on words, a large number of passages contain verbal excellences fit to stand the fierce light of modern criticism. By intermixing numberless unfamiliar Sanskrit words and allusions, the text has however been generally made unintelligible to the ordinary readers, and to most of his poems explanatory tīkās are absolutely necessary. Hence in spite of his rhetorical skill, his poems rarely move the heart, or add to one's knowledge about nature or the human mind.

On the question of sentiments he does not rise above his age. Wanting in energy and lifelikeness the heroes and heroines move like puppets. The low view of women common to the age and to the models followed still further degenerates in his poems; and obscene descriptions abound. Ethical doctrines are generally at a discount in royal families, and in Upēndra Bhañja's case the grandfather's sensuality appears to have had a still worse effect.

To summarise, Upēndra Bhañja is in Oṛiyā language, the most voluminous author, the earliest and most prominent fictional poet, the most obscene, the most unintelligible, and on the whole the best writer of rhetorical excellences. His most important works are first Baidēhīsa-

biļāsa on the career of Rāma up to Uttarākāṇḍa; second Lābaṇyabatī, narrating the story of the princess Lābaṇyabatī and the prince Candrabhānu; third Kōṭibrahmāṇḍasundarī, a romance with the princess of the above name as heroine; and fourth Rasapañcaka, illustrating by Oṛiyā songs the rhetorical rules about Nāyakas, Nāyikās and their loves, and following mainly the corresponding text of the Bengali alankara, Sāhitya Darpaṇ. A passage from Baidēhīsabiļāsa is extracted lower down, but no single passage can give any reliable idea of the many-sided talents of this poet.

#### BISVANĀTHA KHUŅŢI-Ā.

Such a talented poet as Upēndra must influence later poetry. On the religious side his Baidēhīsabiļāsa found an imitator in the Bicitra Rāmāyaṇa of Bisvanātha Khuṇṭi-ā. This author appears to have been a resident of Purī. His surname Khuṇṭi-ā is applied to a special class of sēbakas in the Jagannātha temple, and the poem begins with a brief description of Jagannātha's festivals. His date is not precisely known. In his introduction he refers to the king Divyasimha, who reigned from 1692–93 to 1719–20 A.D.² He also refers to Upēndra Bhañja's Caupadībhūṣaṇa,³ which is probably among Bhañja's earliest works. Approximately therefore the date of Bicitra Rāmayaṇa may be put in the decade 1710–20 A.D.

The poem, as its name implies, is an adaptation of the Sanskrit Rāmāyaṇa, and differs from Baidēhīsabiļāsa in adding the Uttarakāṇḍa and in following more closely the story of the Sanskrit original. It is divided into generally very short cantos, and is therefore well adapted for singing. It is largely sung by dancing boys, and in old days was generally sung in the festival of Çrīrāma navamī, which occurs in

<sup>1</sup> Upēndra Bhañja did not poetise the Uttarākāṇḍa, because according to rules a poem should end happily and not in grief or death.

# विभन्न रस वोलिए न विए लि रते। बुधे वोलिक्नि रहा दोष कान्द गीते॥ ४६॥

Baid. Bil., 52nd Ch., p. 535.

- "I have not described this (Uttarā-kāṇḍa), because then the enjoyment of the rasas will be broken. The learned have said that this is a fault in chānda poetry."
- ² "श्री दीयसिंह गजपित श्रीजगन्नाय श्रीचर्ण भजे" "I pay my obeisance to Grī-Divyasimha Gajapati and to the auspicious feet of Grī-Jagannātha." Ch. I, l. 5, Ādikāṇḍa. For Dibya simha's reign, see App. IV, "The later kings of Khōrdā."
- 3 " राम आहारी। भञ्जद्भ चलपदी भूषण नश्चत्तरी हते।" Bic. Ram. Āraṇyaka, Kāṇḍa, Chānda 2nd's tune.

spring (Caitra). The Bicitra Rāmāyaṇa cannot bear comparison with the poem of Upēndra Bhañja in point of learning and rhetorical skill, but it is simpler, shorter, and more free from obscenity. To illustrate their differences, one passage on the Pampā tank is given below with the parallel passage from Baidēhīsabiļāsa.

प्रवेश राम लच्चाण पम्पासर तौर। देखिन्त निर्मेळ जळ खित मनो हर। १। कमळ कुमुद कोकनद नौळोत्पळ। मधुपाने मत्त छोइ चुम्बन्ति म्सळ। २। चडपाशे वेडि्क् न्ति प्रव्य तरुचय। विरिष्ट जनकु से कराउक्रिन्त भय। ३। देख देख लच्चाण ए सरोवर श्रोभा। ए छा देखि केवण देव नो हिव लोभा। ४। विविध इंसमानक्के दिश्र इसन्दर। डाज्जक तितिर काक वके श्रोभाकर। ५। विकाशिन्त नव नव चूताक्कुर माने। प्रकटि वासन्ति वास सर्व्य सिन्धाने। ६। कामतूणिश्रर प्राय दिश्रिन्त खश्रोक। सौताक्क्क विक्चेर कराउक्कि वह्न श्रोक। ०। पाटळी पाटळ कामानळ प्राय दिश्रे। केतकी कळिका मनस्तज्ञुन्त कि से। ०। मिल्लिका सौरभरे मधुकरिनकर। ध्विन किर खोजुक्किन्त सर्व दिगन्तर। ८। मदगन्ध सुश्रोतळ प्रसरे महत। कोकिळ ध्विन करिन्त छोइ महामत्त। १०। Kiskindhyā Kānda Chānda, I.

"Rāma and Lakṣmaṇa enter on the bank of the Pampā tank, and see its clear charming water. [1]. Drunk with honey, the black-bees are kissing the nelumbiums, the white lotuses, the large red lotuses, and the blue water-lilies. [2]. Trees and flowers surround it on four sides, and are causing fear in the hearts of the love-sick. [3]. See! See! Lakṣmaṇa, the beauty of this tank. At this sight which god will not be tempted? [4]. Charming it looks with diverse geese, with the water hens and partridges, with the crows and the cranes. [5]. The mango flowers are newly blooming, and are spreading their mild odour unto all. [6]. The asōka flowers look like the arrows of cupid's bow, and are grieving me for this separation from Sītā. [7]. The Bignolias shine like love-fire, while the Pandanus buds seem like the darts of love-god. [8]. The fragrance of the Jasmines is causing the bees to hum and to hunt about. [9]. The wind is spreading a cool intoxicating odour, the cuckoos are singing in full passion. [10]."

वाटे पम्पा सार सर । विराजित सारसर । विराजित सारसर । छषारि सर से । ४९ । विधिरे चीन भ्रमर । विजसक्ति भ्रमर । विजसक्ति भ्रमर । विजसक्ति भ्रमर । विजस सि । ५० । उ. 1. 47

वाश्चि आदरसरे। विमळ आदरप्ररे।
विवेक हंस मानस। विळ मानस ये। प्रश्।
विश्वंस ताप स्पर्प्र। वड़ अतळ स्पर्प्र।
विनिन्न नीळ सारस। वहर रस से। प्रशः
विविद्यं स्वापित कमळ। विघन तौरे कमळ।
विश्वं स्वज्ञुत सुद। वज्ज कुसुद ए। प्रश्।
वुड़ि उठे चक्र चक्र। विहे गति यथा चक्र।
विनोदरे चक्रवाकौ। विचक्रा कि से। प्रशः।

Baid. Bilā., Kiṣk. Kāṇḍa, 26th Ch., pp. 209-10.

"In the way lies Pampā, the tank of Indra, the best of tanks, which is graced by the long-necked cranes, and where bloom the Nelumbiums. [49]. This tank is by nature free from eddies, is enlivened by the black bees, is so delightful that the immortals are deluded to desire it. [50]. Its water is preferably more lucid than even a clean mirror, and (so good that) the geese think it better than that of even the Mānasa tank (beyond the Himālayas). [51]. Its water is so cool as to destroy all touch of heat, is very deep with flowering blue water-lilies, and is in taste as sweet as honey. [52]. The thirsty deers desiring a drink get satisfaction at the bank of this tank. The many white lotuses in it give much delight to the bees. [53]. The red ducks in it dip and rise, and delighted, whirl round in circles with their females, reminding the motion of dust storms. [54]." 1

#### Lōkanātha Dāsa.

On the fictional side, too, Upēndra Bhañja's romances stimulated others, among whom Lōkanātha Dāsa appears to have been one of the earliest. His works have not yet been printed. I have seen in manuscript his Sarbāŋgasundarī and Hunter's list credits him with three more, Citrōtpaļā, Parimaļā and Rasakaļā. The manuscript of Sarbāŋgasundarī takes up 63 folios with 4 lines on each page. It contains 15 Chāndas; apparently the last few Chāndas are missing. The story part resembles the general type of Upēndra Bhañja's romances, and the descriptions are also on the same line, though of course with much less poetical skill. The date is uncertain, probably the 2nd quarter of the 18th century.

<sup>1</sup> This short canto exemplifies the rhetorical excellence known as "the final alliteration" (anta Jamakas). The force and the jingle music of the Jamakas, it is impossible to show in the translation.

#### SADĀNANDA KAVISŪRYABRAHMĀ.

The last two poets are closely connected with each other, Sadānanda Kavisūryabrahmā being the guru of Abhimanyu Sāmanta-Sadānanda founded a little math at Dikşitaparā, Pargaņā Asurēsvara, Thānā Sālēpura, District Cuttack. From its present Adhikāri most of the following informations have been gathered.1 Sadānanda was born at Bhikāripura, Killā Nayāgara, in the family of an Ōtā Brāhmin. In spite of the attempts of his parents he was a great dunce in his boyhood. When he grew older he felt repentance at his ignorance and prayed to the Çiva Nakulēçvara of Nayāgara. Through his favour he became suddenly inspired with poetical powers. Then he visited Puri, became a disciple of Gangāmātā math, and secured from the Rājā of Purī the title Kavisūryabrahmā. original name was probably Sādhucaraņa Dāsa, which was changed to Sadānanda Dāsa after initiation.2 He next went out on pilgrimage visiting Nabadvip, Brndabana, and other sacred places, and brought therefrom a considerable number of Vaisnavite works. On his return he settled at Bāļi-ā (more correctly Gōlkuṇḍa) in Parganā Baru-ã. There he became the guru of the young zemindar Abhimanyu and taught him to be a poet. This is acknowledged by Abhimanyu himself in his Prēmakaļā.3 Later on however they quarrelled, and

1 The present Adhikāri Paramānanda Dāsa traces his descent thus:—

Sadānanda | Cēlā Dhrubānanda Dāsa | Cēlā Gōbindacandra Dāsa | Cēlā

The present Adhikāri Paramānanda

\* This is indicated in the following line-

त्रीगुर त्री किमोरदास पङ्गज पयार आत्रय करि। मान्नकुलजन्म सुँ साधुचरण दास रिष अधिकारी है। ११।

Nāmacintāmaņi 12th Chānda, p. 23.

"Taking refuge at the lotus feet of the guru, Çrī-Kisōra Dāsa, and who was born of a line (hereditarily) sāktas, have I been adhikāri here (i. e., in Vaiṣṇasism)."

<sup>3</sup> गुर क्रया वर्यावपदसेवाफळे। कविलकस्पणा जनमिसा हृदस्यळे हैं। १९। Abhimanyu is said to have attempted the substitution of his idol for that of his guru. Disgusted (partly from jealousy too), Sadānanda removed his things to Dikṣitapaṛā, and founded the present maṭh. This village is situated on the north of Kēndrāpaṭā canal. The present Adhikāri puts his date roughly at 150 years old. The date seems approximately correct. At the time Prēmakaļā was written (about 1777 A.D.), Sadānanda was the teacher of Abhimanyu and was probably 30 to 40 years old, nearer 40 than otherwise. Hence Sadānanda was some twenty years older than his pupil, and may be said to have flourished in the third quarter of the eighteenth century.

No large work is attributed to Sadānanda. He composed numerous songs and several small pieces, all dealing with Rādhā and Kṛṣṇa. The tradition is that the songs passing under the name of Aṣṭadurgānātha were really Sadānanda's; he passed them off as Āṭhgaṛa king's, probably for good consideration. The present Adhikāri has supplied me with the following list of his works:—

- 1. Laharī (वहरी).
- 2. Bhauri (भँडरी).
- 3. Cauri (चँडिर).
- 4. Tattvatarangini, Parts I-III (तत्त्वतरिक्रणी).
- 5. Prēmataranginī (प्रेमतरिक्षणी).
- 6. Nāmacintāmaņi (नामचिन्तामणि).
- 7. Nisthanilamani (निष्टानी लमिष).
- 8. Prēmakalpalatā (प्रेमकस्पलता).
- 9. Samudra (समुद्र).
- 10. Möhanalatā (मोदनजता).
- 11. Bisvambharabihāra (বিশ্বন্দাৰ্থিতাৰ).
- 12. Pātaradābaļī (?) (पातरदावजी).
- 13. Caitanyabhāgabata (चैतन्यभागवत).
- 14. Curi (?) Cintāmaņi (चुरिचिन्तामणि).

I have seen only one work of his, Nāmacintāmaṇī (No. 6) and several songs. Caitanyabhāgabata (No. 13) if a poem, is probably an

## श्रीमत श्रीसदानन्द कविस्तर्थ्यत्रद्धा। कपा फळे प्रापत कविलमार्गसीमा से। ३०।

MS. Prēma Kalā, 1st Ch. Folios 1-2,

"By attendance on the feet of the Guru, Kṛṣṇa and Vaiṣṇavas, the imaginative power of poetry took its birth in my heart. Through the favour of Çrimata Sadā-nanda Kavisūryabrahmā I have attained the extreme of poetical path."

The Premakalā was begun in the author's 20th year, as noted by him later on 1st Ch. l. 111, Folio 4.

adaptation of the same work in Bengali by Bṛndābana Dās. The Nāmacintamaņi is in 12 Chāndas and in print occupies 23 pages only. Besides praises to Rādhā and Kṛṣṇa, one Chānda (the 3rd) is entirely devoted to Caitanya and his principal disciples. Apparently Sadānanda was a Gauriyā Vaisnava. Most extravagant are the praises of Rādhā, who should be named first and then Kṛṣṇa.1 His songs are among the most popular and are exclusively devotional. But on the whole I think that he is more famous than his works justify. Probably this fame arose from his superior personality and from his extensive knowledge gathered in travel.

#### ABHIMANYU SĀMANTASIMHĀRA.

The pre-British poets conclude with Abhimanyu Sāmantasimhāra. He belonged to a zemindar family, whose descendants still survive. From one of them Babu Raghunātha Sāmantasimhāra a good deal of the undermentioned information has been obtained.2

The family was founded by one Kāļu Simha. He and his brother Mahābaļa Simha came from Jaypur (Rajputana) to Purī apparently on pilgrimage. They took service under the Rājā of Purī and came to be employed as guards of the king's bed-room (palaykapaharā). While in this trusted post they secured for themselves the grant of the zemindari of Parganā Baruã. On coming to take possession, they found one Ucita Bēhērā already in possession by virtue of an older sanad. ensued, and at last a compromise was arrived at by a division of the Parganā. The two brothers got seventy-one villages, which are now comprised in the Tāluks Sāntrāpura, Kēsapura, and Rādhāmōhanaprasāda. The two brothers lived together. When Mahābaļa died, his

# 1 ऋषिवचन राधा ये पके वोले छ्या नाम आगे वोलि। बेहि चिण ब्रह्महत्या दोष पार जगि जपिव न सुन्ति। ४।

Nāma Cintāmaņi, 5th Ch. p. 8.

"This is the saying of Rsis—he who names Rādhā having named Kṛṣṇa first, gets then and there the sin of a Brāhmin-murder. Not forgetting this, watchfully repeat (her name)."

2 My informant, a fine old man of sixty, died the year before last (1896). He traced his descent from Abhimanyu in this manner:-

> Abhimanyu Rāmakṛṣṇa . (son) Raghunātha (son) (my informant).

son Jodhi Simha-separated taking as his share the Tāluk Sāntrapura. The descent from Kālu Simha is thus given:—

> 1. Kālu Simha.

> > (son)

- 2. Saratha Samantasimhara
- 3. Alaņi Sāmantasimhāra (son)
- Bandēji S. 4.(son)
- 5. Paramānanda S.

(son)

- 6. Khusāļi S. (son)
- 7. Indrajita S. (son)
- Abhimanyu S. (eldest son) The author.

Of his father and his zemindari, Abhimanyu has given a short description in his Prēmakaļā. They lived at Gōļakunda which is now

> <sup>1</sup> जम्बुद्दीप भरतखख्ड र सार मही। महोद्धि याजनय मध्य रस्य तहिँ ये॥ १०४॥ सुविचारस्थान एणु थिवार से देश। गोळकुष्ड नामे याम तर्हिरे प्रकाश ये॥ १०५॥ वास्तीनदी से ग्राम सीमा भेदि वहि। विराट गोधन रहिबार स्थान सेहि ये॥ १० ६॥ ए राज्यरे राजा मिनवंशी खेनीवर। द्न्द्रजित सामनिसिंहार नाम बर हे॥ १००॥ ताङ्क ज्येष्ठ स्त्रत ज्यभिमन्य नाम मीर। षाड्मर रीतिरे त सामनासिंदार॥ १० ८॥

> > MS. Prēmakaļā, 1st Chānda. Folios 3-4.

"In Jambu Dvīpa Bharata Khanda, this country (Utkala) is the essence. Charming is the town Jajanagara on the seacoast of that country. In this land so well fitted for enjoyment, exists a village by name Gölakunda. By the boundary of this village flows the river Brāhmi; and its meadows are well suited for immense situated on the left bank of the Brāhminī river, 20° 42′ lat., and 86° 18′ long. The Jājanagara referred to was the old name of modern Jājapura. The family quarters have now been removed to Bāļi-ā, a few miles east. The family have lost the zemindari and now live upon 25 bāṭis (500 acres) lākhirāj land, with which Abhimanyu is said to have endowed the family idol Rādhāmōhana.

According to local traditions Abhimanyu was precocious in his development, and lisped in number from his very boyhood. In his ninth year he is credited with the composition of doggrels known as Hügita, and in his tenth year with other songs, as Jēmā Gīta, Bāgha Gīta, Gōbrācarēi Gīta. He then came under the influence of Sadānanda Kavisūryabrahmā and in his twentieth year began his first large poem Prēmakaļā. I have got a manuscript of this work. He then composed various poems as Sulakṣaṇā, Rasabatī, Prēmacintāmaņi and Prēma-I have got a manuscript copy of the last. His last work was Bidagdhacintāmaņi. He intended to finish it in 108 Chāndas with a description of the Rāsalīļā, but when he had gone up to 96th Chānda, he felt a disgust for this life, turned an ascetic Vaisnava, and abandoning family and home proceeded to Bṛndābana. There he died in his 49th year. The Bidagdhacintāmaņi has been printed, and in its Preface, his death is said to have taken place on Jyēṣṭha kṛṣṇa saptamī of sana 1213 (=8th June, 1806 A.D., Tuesday). Abhimanyu was well read in Sanskrit classics and rhetorics, and knew Hindī and Mārāṭhī, the speeches of the then governing races. From his boyhood, he loved to associate with Pandits and Sadhus and the accidental residence of Sadananda helped him materially in developing his poetical powers. He is said to have built a temple to Rādhāmōhana Ṭhākura.

The manuscript Prēmakaļā is a moderate-sized volume occupying 186 folios with four lines on each page. It is a romance in 64 Chāndas modelled after Upēndra Bhañja's stories. Though begun in the author's twentieth year, it displays considerable knowledge of Sanskrit rhetorics and indicated the future power of the poet. The manuscript Prēmataraŋgiṇī is a small piece based on the Rāsapañcādhyāyī, whose çlōkas are quoted and versified. Of the other poems two are love stories,

herds of cattle. The ruler of this land is a Mitravamçī Kṣatriya, by name Indrajita Sāmantasimhāra. His eldest son am I, by name Abhimanyu, by surname Sāmantasimhāra."

## 1 विंग्र वरष वयसे एदा चारिभालि। सुजनपदात्रितरे ग्रङ्गादीन कलि ये॥ १११॥

Prēmakaļā MS., 1st Ch., Folio 4.

<sup>&</sup>quot;I began this at the age of twenty, and by attending on the feet of good men dropped my timidity."

Rasabatī and Sulakṣaṇā, the initial letters of each line of the latter being sa; while Prēmacintāmaṇi is said to be religious.

The last and the best of his poems is Bidagdhacintāmaṇi, based on the Sanskrit Bidagdhamādhava of Rūpa Gōsvāmī the well-known disciple of Caitanya. It deals with the life and love of Rādhā and Kṛṣṇa; while the last four Chāndas poetise the Caitanyite doctrines of Prēma and Bhakti (love and devotion). The poem is a store-house of rhetorical excellences, almost each Chānda exemplifying a different kind of verbal formations. It thus resembles Kōṭibrahmāṇḍasundarī of Upēndra Bhañja; but it is simpler, less loaded with Sanskrit learning and imageries, and therefore more effective. The author's religious feelings have made the poem less obscene and have induced him to put in graceful verses the rather abstruse doctrines of Prēma and Bhakti—a field which Upēndra Bhañja did not try. In learning and comprehensiveness he is undoubtedly, inferior to Upēndra; but it may be said for Bidagdhacintāmaṇi that no single Oṛiyā poem contains so many examples of rhetorical skill or abstract poetry as this work does.

#### Mādalā Pānji.

Having finished the pre-British period of Oriyā poetry, a few words may be added in the conclusion about Oriyā prose. Literary compositions in Oriyā prose are unknown. The Mādaļā Pāñji and a few Baṁsābaļis are the only specimens of prose. These have no literary merits. The Mādalā Pāñji is a sort of chronicle of the Jagannātha temple. Its contents are roughly divisible into three kinds:

- (1) A short history of the kings of Orissa (Rājāmānaŋkara Rājyabhōga).
- (2) A history of the erection of Jaganuātha's temple, its modes of worship, and the duties of its sēbakas.
- (3) An account of extraordinary events happening in the temple with the details of their costs, if any.

The historical value of Mādaļā Pāñji has been very much overrated. The original informations were often not correctly entered. Then again the chronicle being on palm-leaves, it had to be recopied three or four times in a century, and in re-copying many mistakes crept in, particularly in figures. Lastly the  $S\bar{e}b\bar{a}$  (worship) was closed several times on account of the Mahomedan raids, and many volumes must have been lost at the time. Hence the text is found full of mistakes and cannot be relied upon, unless corroborated by other evidence. The later writers have also fallen into mistakes by following exclusively only

<sup>1</sup> The remarks by Mr. Beames on the literary value of the Mādaļā Pāñji (Vol. II, p. 348) were passed admittedly without any knowledge of their contents.

one version of the royal geneology, while there are five or six versions in the Mādaļā Pāñji. The truth often lies in one or other version. Appendix IV. will give some idea of the difficulties in constructing a royal geneology from these different versions.

At present the Mādaļā Pāñji is kept in two sets, one by the Sēbaka entitled Dēuļakaraņa, the other by the Sēbaka named Tarha-u. The Dēuļakaraņa (lit. the writer of the temple) as his name implies, seems to have been the original keeper of the records, but a second was added apparently for check and for better preservation of the informations. It is not known when these records began to be kept. But from the fact that a large number of details dates from the time of Ananga Bhīma Dēva, the system would appear to have been established by him. As a rule the later the accounts, the more reliable they are.

N.B.—Since writing this article, a kind letter of Dr. Fleet has drawn my attention to his remarks on the Mādalā Pāñji in the Epigraphia Indica.¹ Dr. Fleet has analysed the earlier list of kings carefully and comes to the conclusion that the annal is "absolutely worthless for any purposes of ancient history." (p. 335). I came nearly to the same conclusion when I was studying the original manuscript of the Mādalā Pāñji. In an article read before this Society, an abstract of which was published in the Proceedings for July 1892, I noticed the general unreliability of the historical portion of the Mādalā Pāñji, and remarked that at best it can be used only as a corroborative document. Dr. Fleet's analysis confirms me in that view.

On some of the points discussed in the very interesting article of Dr. Fleet, I venture to differ. Firstly, he thinks that in respect of most of the Kēçarī kings it can only be said that "not one of them has any ring of antiquity in the sound of it; they may possibly be real names of later rulers, misplaced in order to make out a consecutive chronological series." (p. 336). I know at least of one Orissan inscription not later than tenth century, which mentions Kēçarī kings. It is the Brahmēçvara inscription of Bhuvanēçvara. This inscription mentions Udyōtaka Kēçarī, and of his ancestors Janamējaya, Vicitravīra, Caṇḍīhara and Kōļāvatī. The names of both Janamējaya and Kōļāvatī are to be found in the Mādaļā Pāñji. The Kēçarī kings need not therefore be considered as myths or later rulers, as suggested.

Secondly, Dr. Fleet has "no substantial doubt that the Yavana invasions which were repulsed, as the annals say, by Vajradēva and his

<sup>1 &</sup>quot;The Records of the Somavamçi kings of Katak." Ep. Ind., Vol. III., pp. 334-340.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Prinsep, Journ. As. Soc. Vol. VII., p. 558 et. seq.; l. c. Dr. R. L. Mittra s Antiquities of Orissa, Vol. II. pp. 88-9.

successors, and the successful invasion by the Yavanas, in the time of Çōbhanadēva, are (mixed up with the early Gupta rule) simply the raids into Orissa by the Mussulmans in the thirteenth and following centuries, and the ultimate conquest of the country by them in the sixteenth century A.D." (p. 339). After having so satisfactorily established the utter worthlessness of the earlier part of the annals, it is a pity that Dr. Fleet should make such an elaborate inference on one of the least authentic events of that earlier part. I am inclined to disbelieve the whole story of Raktavāhu the Yavana, as a legend without any historical value. If any identification be at all required, I would rather identify him with some Buddhist or Jaina chief of the South.

Lastly, Dr. Fleet thinks that Civagupta and his descendants were kings of a dominion which included "probably the whole of Orissa," and who had their capitals at Kataka (p. 327). This conclusion does not appear to be borne out by the facts. The epithet "Trikalingādhipati" is merely an honorific title, just as the old kings of Orissa used to style themselves "kings of Gaura and Karnāṭa" without having the smallest bit of land in those countries. The word Kataka should be taken as a common noun denoting "camp;" the old name of modern town Kaṭaka being "Bārāṇasi Kaṭaka." Of the six copper-plates, five have, no doubt, been found near modern Kataka; but this is probably due to the fact that the donees lived there or subsequently came to Many Oriyā Brāhmins living near Kataka and Purī still hold lands in the eastern part of Central Provinces, or in the northern part of Madras Presidency. The sixth copper-plate was found in Pātnā in the Central Provinces, and does not support the theory of Orissa kingship. The river Mahānadī has been mentioned in copper-plates E. and F., but that river flows as much through the Central Provinces as through The villages in which the lands were granted cannot be traced in Orissa; while many of them have been specifically mentioned in the grants to have been in Kōsala or Dakṣiṇa-Kōsala. also are specifically mentioned in the inscriptions as "Kōsalēndra." The inscriptions are not earlier than the 11th and belong more probably to the 12th Century A.D.; and at that time the Gangavamça kings were ruling in Orissa, as a series of inscriptions have proved beyond doubt. these facts and a careful reading of the grants lead me to the conclusion that Çivagupta and his descendants were really kings of Kōsala or Daksina-Kōsala (identifiable with the N. E. part of Central Provinces),

<sup>1</sup> J. A. S. B. Vol. LXII., 1893, pp. 100-1; the other inscriptions in this article show how the word "kataka" was used in old days; Vol. LXIV, 1895, p. 134.

and that the lands in the plates B to F. were granted to Brāhmins who either resided at the time in Orissa or subsequently came to reside there.

APPENDIX III. BHŪPATI PAŅDITA'S ACCOUNT OF HIMSELF.

ए पर्थ परम जानन्दे। कृषाचर्या जर्विन्दे॥ एमन होइला मधुप। वैष्णव दास कवि भूप। पिश्वमा विप्र सारश्वत । नाम ये भूपति पिण्डित ॥ श्रीगनपति गौड़ेश्वर। उत्तळ देशर ठाकुर॥ ये नव कोटि कर्णाटक। स्तवर देश्वर नायक॥ ए आदि लोक चतुईग्र। पुरित याद्वार सुयग्र॥ जगनायङ्ग क्च प्रिरे। एणु ए वड़ जगतरे॥ पूर्वे ए खोड़िग्रा राज्यर। श्री इन्द्रद्यम न्यवर॥ २००॥ ताहाङ्क आज्ञा परमार्गे। त्रसा अइले ए भुवने॥ व्रह्मा मानिले आज्ञा यार। इतर जन केउँ छार॥ यहाङ्क प्रिरे साढ़ि देइ। एटि प्रत्यक्ते विष्णुदेहि॥ ए वीरबर वर्षाव। नाम श्री दिखसिंह देव॥ बच्चे राजाङ्क चुड़ामिण । सुन्दरपणे खग्ने गिण ॥ कन्दर्भ सम नोहे रूपे। एथिवी पूरित प्रतापे॥ पिष्डित धामक विवेक । सङ्गीत विद्या सुरसिक ॥ मदन ग्रास्त्र अनुभवि । श्रीकृषारस वाका कवि ॥ प्रजापाळन विप्रभक्त। दयाळु दाता परिहत॥ एते बच्चा से राजन। ताहाङ्ग किर दरप्रन ॥ २१०॥ कीर्त्ति कवित्व वर्णिवार । श्रुणि सन्तोष न्यवर ॥ धनवसन भूमि दान। देले से होइ सुप्रसन्न ॥ देखि खनुग्रह विशेष। क्रांडि खरिल निज देश॥ ताहाङ्क अनुजळ खाइ। सुखे ताहाङ्क राज्ये थाइ॥ कठक नाम रिषपुर। नगर पिसमे मो घर॥ पिश्वम भाषारे कविल । वङ्गळा भाषा बिरि हित ॥ उत्तळ भाषा नविश्वचा । मोहर वश्याव दीचा॥ श्री वज राजेन्द् कुमर। किश्रोर कृषा वेगुधर॥

ताहाङ्क प्राखा भावे भिन । निम्मळ प्रेमे मन रिञ्ज । श्री कृषाचर्यो विश्वास । नाम श्री चइतन्यदास ॥ २२०॥ महत शुद्ध वर्षाव। गोपीका भिक्त ताङ्क भाव॥ श्रीपुरुषोत्तमरे घर। शुद्ध पश्चिम पारुप्रर॥ पूर्वें से कपालमोचन। पश्चिमे लेकेश्वर स्थान॥ ए दुइ ग्रिवङ्क मध्यर। मठ चइतन्य दासङ्कर। ताहाङ्क सङ्गे मो पौरति। ताहाङ्क इष्ट गोपौपति। व्याचा होइला ताहाङ्कर। उत्तळ भाषा वाक्य कर। चौतिषा चउपदी गौत। बर्ण हो गोविन्द चरित। ताहाङ्क खाचा घेनि प्रिरे। मन खीक्षण चरणरे। सुधासमुद्र पूरि थाइ। थेग्ट पूराइ ख्रा नेइ। तदव गोविन्द चरित। चौतिषा चउपदी गीत। करइँ वृद्धि अनुसारे। शुणाइँ ताहाङ्क छामुरे। २३०। से पुणि ज्ञञ्जन्ति प्रसन्न । ञानन्दे दयन्ति चालिङ्गन । ए रूपे क्रपा ताहाङ्कर। एटि दुर्ह्मभ लाभ मोर। श्रीदिव्यसिं इ राजाङ्कर। समस्त अठर अङ्कर। मकर मास शुक्कपद्म । तिथि चयोदशी प्रत्यद्म । गोध्ळि सोमवार दिन । ए ग्रस्य होइला सम्पर्ध । ए दश्र खध्या पदयुक्त । दुइ सच्च नव श्रत । अधिक सपत तिरिशा। ए प्रेम पञ्चाम्त रस। येवे तो ब्रह्मज्ञाने मन । ए ग्रन्थ करहे पठन ।

Prēmapancāmṛta, 10th Adhyaya, pp. 122-23.

#### APPENDIX IV.

The Later Kings of Khorda.

Considerable confusion exists regarding the times of these kings, and the confusion has arisen partly from the peculiar nature of the Oriyā anka and partly from relying on one version alone of the Mādaļā Pāñji. The Oriyā anka omits several years and begins in bhādra; but hitherto it has been taken as an ordinary year. The Mādaļā Pāñji, furthermore, gives several versions of the royal genealogies. Of these one has been followed by Mr. Stirling, which will be called A;

another (to be called B) is followed in Bābu Bhabānī Charaṇ Bandyō-pādhyāya's Puruṣōttamacandrikā and adopted in Hunter's Orissa (Vol. II, App. VII, pp. 183–191); while a third which I shall call C is still unpublished. The C version is incomplete taking the genealogy up to Gōpīnātha Dēva only, but otherwise appears to have been generally more reliable.

# DIVYASIMHA DĒVA. (1692/93-1719/20 A.D.).

His time is important for Oriyā literature, as three poets,—Upēndra Bhañja, Bhūpati Paṇḍita and Bisvanātha Khuṇṭiā mention him. The king's initial year appears to be 1692–93 A.D., and for several reasons. Firstly, A puts it at 1692 A.D. Secondly, Bhūpati Paṇḍita's poem was finished in his 18th Aŋka, makara çukla trayōdaçī, Monday. On calculating according to Prof. Jacobi's Tables, makara çukla trayōdaçī fell on Monday in the year 1707 (3rd February). This being the king's 18th aŋka or 15th year, the first year falls in 1692–93. Thirdly, reasonings from Mahomedan chronicles support this date. During this reign Aurangzēb sent orders to break the temple and the image of Jagannātha:—

"He (Mīr Sayyid Maḥmūd of Bilgrām) was a man held in great respect and had served under Nawāb Ikrām in Orissa. When Aurangzēb had sent orders to the Nawāb to destroy the temple of Jagannāth, Raja Durup Sing Deo who had the temple under him asked the Mīr to introduce him to the Nawāb. The Raja promised to break up the temple and to send the big idol to the Emperor. He actually did break the statue of Rakas which stood over the entrance of the temple, and also two battlements over the door. The idol which was made of sandalwood and which had two valuable jewels set in the eyes, was carried off and sent to Aurangzēb at Bijapur where it was thrown by order on the steps of the mosque."

l Tabșirat-ul-Nāzirīn, l. c. Dr. R. L. Mittra's Ant. Orissa, Vol. II, p. 112. The breaking of the temple is corroborated by Mādaļā Pāñji (C version):—

"(अ०क्क) रिसम दि १९ ने एदिन देवविभा एद दिन पातीसा अउरक्क साहाक्क नवाव एकराम खाँ एहाक्कठार अद्देखा एहा भाद सरमण्ड खाँ यमां उला एसक्कते द्रमाम कोळि असुआर गो ५० टा घेनि। राया दिव्यसिंह देव वारुखागि होद्रियले देउळ सिंहद्वार गुमुट भाक्किको भोगमण्डपर चक्र नेले काठर यगनाय प्रतिमाकु सुगल नेले देउळ सिंहासन उपरकु नवाव भाद गला देउळ सिंहद्वार दखीण दार मुदागला"

The event thus described took place on 19th rsava, 7th Anka of the king Divyasimha Dēva, being 17th May in 1697 A.D.

Aurangzēb was at Bijapur in 1697 A.D., conducting the war against the Marhattas. As quoted in the note 1 of page 381, the image was taken away in the 7th anka of the King Divyasimha Dēva. Hence his 7th Anka or 5th year fell in 1696/97 A.D., and his 1st year in 1692/93 A.D. According to C, Divyasimha was crowned on Bichā 23rd, equal to 22nd November 1692, (vide Prof. Jacobi's Tables).

According to C, Divyasimha Dēva ruled for 34 Aŋkas or 27y. 5m. 11d. That he reigned for more than 33 Aŋkas is corroborated by an Oṛiyā inscription found by me on the wheel at the top of Jagannātha temple. The Inscription contains the following entry among others:—

"श्रीदिवसिंह देव माहाराजाङ्क अ३२ङ्क मकर दि २८ न श्रीनीळचक्र तीआर होइ विजे होइले" The blue wheel was made and put (on the top), on makara 28th, 33rd Aŋka of Çrī-Dribasimha Dēba Māhārājā.

The 33rd Aŋka or 27th year takes us to 1718/19 A.D., and its makar 28th was 26th January in 1719 A.D., (vide Jacobi's Tables). Dibyasimha Dēva was therefore reigning in 1719 A.D. According to C, he died next year on mēṣa 31st (34th Aŋka), or 28th April 1720 A.D. (vide Jacobi).

# II. HARĒKŖŅA DĒVA.(1719/20-1724/25 A.D.)

Divyasimha was succeeded by his brother Harēkṛṣṇa, whose reign is put by A. and B. at 5 years and by C. at 7 Aŋkas or 4y. 10m. 20d, (3 put in C by mistake for 4). All the versions therefore agree. He died on mina 19th, 7th Aŋka (vide C.) which according to Jacobi's Tables would be 18th March in 1725 A.D. The father of Gadādhara Rāyaguru (the author of Sanskrit Ācārasāra) was guru of this king.

# III. Göpīnātha Dēva. (1724/25-1731/32 A.D.)

Harēkṛṣṇa was succeeded by his son Gōpīnātha, with whose accession C. ends. Both A. and B. agree in putting his reign at 7 years. That he reigned for more than six years is corroborated by an account in the Mādaļā Pāñji. During this reign the accidental sitting of an owl on the Jagannātha's image necessitated an extraordinary purification with three baths. The event took place on Makar kṛṣṇa trayōdaçī, Monday, 8th Aŋka of Gōpīnātha Dēva. Makara kṛṣṇa 13 fell on Monday in the year 1731 A.D. (25th January). Gōpīnātha Dēva was therefore reigning in 1731 A.D.

<sup>1</sup> Elphinstone's Hist. Ind., p. 662 (Ed. 1889).

#### IV. RĀMACANDRA DĒVA II.

(1731/32—1742/43 A.D.)

This king was son of Gōpīnātha. According to A., he reigned 16 years; according to B. 11 years. B's statement appears more reliable, because the reigns of this king and of his two successors amount to 66 years, and the next following king (Makunda Dēva) began to rule in 1797/98 A.D., as I shall show hereafter. Hence Rāmacandra's 1st year falls in 1731/32 (or 1797/98—66) exactly as calculated from his father's reign. But A's total 71 would put his 1st year further back to 1726/27 A.D., which does not agree with the calculations from the reigns of the preceding kings. Rāmacandra Dēva was unfortunate. He was defeated and taken as prisoner to Kaṭaka under orders of Shujā-ud-dīn, the Bengal Governor. At Kaṭaka he married a Mahomedan lady and died.

### V. VĪRAKIŞŌRA DĒVA.

(1742/43—1779/80 A.D.)

Vīrakiṣōra succeeded his grandfather as a child. According to A,¹ the Marhattas conquered Orissa and drove out the Mughals in his 5th Aŋka or 4th year. This dispossession of the Mughals took place towards the end of the rains in 1745 A.D.² The 4th year being 1745/46 A.D., the first year naturally falls in 1742/43 A.D. According to A. he ruled 43 years; and according to B. 37 years. For reasons stated under Rāmacandra Dēva and under the next kings I have accepted B's figures as more reliable. Vīrakiṣōra was reigning in 43rd Aŋka or 35th year as an Oṛiyā sale-deed testifies.³ The king's rule was nominal being disturbed by Mughals and Marhattas.

#### VI. DIVYASIMHA DĒVA II.

(1779/80—1797/98 A.D.)

This king was grandson of Vīrakiṣōra. His reign is put by Mr. Stirling at 12, and by B. at 18 years. The former is wrong because A. which Stirling followed, really shows 18 and not 12; and because Stirling himself has translated an Oṛiyā sale-deed dated 17th Aŋka or

## 1 "ए राजाङ्क अध्ङक्षरे मरठाएं खासि मुगलकु उठाइ देले। कटक खमळ कले। मुगलवन्दि दखल कले।"

- 2 Stewart's Hist. Beng. (1847), p. 293. "Ragojee accordingly encamped in Beerbhoom and reduced the province of Cuttack and most of Burdwan, by his detachments."
  - 3 Toynbee's Orissa, App. p. XXXIII.

14th year of this king.1 He used to pay tribute to the Marhattas, and had little of royal power even in his own territory that corresponded with the present Khōrdā subdivision plus Parganā Lēmbāi.

#### MAKUNDA DĒVA II. VII. (1797/98—1817 A.D.)

Stirling places the accession of this king in 1798 A.D., and as he was a contemporary of the king his opinion carries weight. This is borne out also by two facts. According to A. the British conquered Orissa in this king's 9th Anka, and captured and imprisoned the Rājā in his 10th Anka or 8th year. The British forces captured the Fort Bārabāţi in Kaṭaka on 14th October 1803, while the Rājā himself was captured the next year in November 1804.2 Hence the 1st year of the king falls in 1797-98 A.D. The Rājā was released subsequently. But in 1817 on account of the rebellion of Khōrdā pāiks he was recaptured and put into the prison at Kataka. There he died on 30th November 1817 A.D.<sup>3</sup> in his 24th Anka or 19th year.

#### APPENDIX V.

Gumusara royal Geneology.

एहाङ्क (वनमाळि भञ्जकु) मारि एहाङ्क भाइ गौपिनाथ भञ्ज रायुत कले १५५८ सकाब्द ग्रारिकि व २२ र्ष । १५४१ ग्राकाब्दरे गोपिनायपुर ग्रासन कले। एहाङ्क पूत्र बड़ धनञ्जय भञ्जे १ गोविन्द भञ्ज पाटर जा २ वलभद कोटरा ३ निधि भञ्ज सान्तसिं हारे १। ए चारि एख ताङ्कर हो इथिले। ताङ्क भितर वड़ पुच्य धनञ्जय भञ्ज राजल कर्ले। ए राजल कर्ले चो राजल करिवारे घाठी ए इयार टङ्का लगाइ जगती गोटिए तीयार करिथिले। खटदोळी वाङ्किया रतन जिल्त करि तौयार करिथिले। एचाङ्गर विशेष मचादेर नाचुि करिथिले। ए वड़ भोगि। ए माइपि कुचमईन ज्रञ्जन्ति। ए रात्र दुइ घड़ि थाए सम्च-कुळि दुध योगणा करन्ति। ए रजा धनञ्जयपुर प्राभान १५०८ भ्रकाब्दरे कले। रिह्मिर यग्रमानङ्ग नारि राजल नारिवारे ए राजल नाले १६२३ प्रकाब्द प्रारिकि ब ६५ घे। एथक १६१६ प्रकाब्द प्रारिकि पेप्रकेप्रि का हाक देवार न थिला। १६१७ भ्राकाब्द भारिकि मुगलाइ नवाव आसिवारे एक बर्षकु ट प्००० जा पाच ह्यार टङ्का लेखार पेशकेशि मूळ कले। से दिन ठार पेशकेशि देवार

<sup>1</sup> Toynbee's Orissa, App. p. XXXIII.

<sup>2</sup> Toynbee's Orissa, pp. 4-5; Hunter's Orissa, Vol. II, p. 58.

<sup>3</sup> Toynbee's Orissa, p. 21.

हेला। एहाङ्क पुत्र राउतघर नाति वड़ गङ्गाधर पाट कुमारे। जुड़ सुळार नाती हरिप्ररण भञ्जे। एहाङ्क पद इन्ताकारी वड़जेना । धरा कोट घर नाति विष्णुनाथ मङ्गराजे। वड़म्वा हाड़ देर पाट महादेरक्क पुछ। निलक्तराठ भञ्जे।१। विक्रम भञ्जे। २ । प्रताप भञ्जे । ३ । खार पड़ाधर नाति गदाधर भञ्जे । १ । प्रान्त सिं इस्। ए। खिलकोटघर नाति। गिरिधर भञ्जे। १। सदाभित भञ्जे। २। वाउरि भन्ने। ३। भमर वरे। १। राउत घर नाति। खर्जुन भन्ने। २। एरूपे तेर पुच नाचुगी पुच पाञ्च गोटी। एरूप चठर पुचा। एहा क्ष राजलरे ए गुमुप्ररक् ष्यश्वत्यमा गोपनीय वेश्वरे छासि थिले। ताङ्का तेजर राजा महापुरुष वोलि जाणि ताक्क्षारों भिक्त कर्ते। ताङ्कु पचारिले खाम्भ उतार गुमुग्रररे किये राजल करिव। पचारिवास ति हैं कि से कहिले। तुम्भ पुत्रमानक्षु राजल गाहिँ। ति हैं उत्तास गोविन्द भञ्ज थाट रजाङ्क पुत्र । रघुनाथ दिच्च ये । घन भञ्जे । चन्द्र ग्रीखर श्रीचन्दने। जदु भमर वरे। ग्रामसुन्दर विधारे। मकुन्द भन्ने राखापितामे। एरूपे ताक्षर क्पुचक् देखिले। एकाक्ष देखि वोइले का हाठारे राजचित्र नाहिं। धनिया छत्तार गोविन्द भञ्ज घाट रजाङ्क पुष्य घनिया हैव। एपरि से कि इवार ताहा मनरे रिखि थिले। धनञ्जय भञ्ज राजभोग इच्छारे रिच्च भाइ गोविन्द भञ्ज थाट रजाङ्क मुलुक वेमार समर्पण करि धान्ति। ए समयरे शुआगि महादेइ इाड़्देरङ्ग ठारे रजाङ्गर वड़ सेह थाए। से महादेर एख नीळकाळ भञ्जङ्ग साड़ी देव वोलि कज्जधान्ति। गङ्गाधर पाट कुमारङ्ग ठारे गोविन्द भञ्ज घाट रजाङ्गर क्षुत्र प्रीतिकरि घान्ति। हाड्देश ताहा श्रुणि रजाङ्ग ठारे विमन करि खच किंचे। गोविन्द भञ्ज थाट रजाङ्ग क्षु असमेतरे राज्यर अन्तर कराइ देले। से गोविन्द भञ्ज घाट रजा पाञ्च एउपद्भ घेनि खोड़ी एया वास्टारि गले। घन भञ्जे धराकोट जिमदारी स्थलरे रिचले। एउतार रजा वह्नत काळ जीइँवार ष्टाड़देइ विचारिले। एत बह्नत काळ राजल कर्ले पुत्र मोर रजा होइ न पारिला। एमना दुवीं चार करि चम्पा नानि हाते दुध सरुच कुळी खाइबारे से थिरे विष दिखाइ ले एख नीळक एठ भञ्जाङ्ग वापङ्ग ए समयरे खपाय विचार कर वोणि कि हि देले। नौळकराठ भञ्ज ताहा जाशि वापङ्ग माइले। वड़ भाइ पाट कुमारङ्ग राज साड़ी वांन्धिवि खास वोलिवार से भयर कवाट किळि रिच घर न वाहारिले। ताङ्क घर कवाट चिरि ताङ्क धरि हाणि पकाइले। ताहाङ्क पुत्र सनुजय भन्न पाचेरि चिरि पळाउथिले। दन्ता दया वोलि वालेक कागड विधिवास कार्यं वायिबारे पड़िवास वेढ़ीकरि हासी पकाइले। ए सनुजय भञ्जङ्क

भार्या गर्भ होइ थिले। ता हा जु नेइ बन्द कि रखी नीलकराठ मझे राज्त कले १६२५ प्रकाब्द सिर्क वर्ष। ए भितरे धराकोटरे थिवा घन भझे सुगीले। तीन प्रका मारि नीळकराठ भझे राया हेले वो लि। से खवर सुगी घन भझे कर ड़ामाळ कु सुन्न कि कर ड़ामाळ कु सुन्न कि कर ड़ामाळ के प्रवेश हेले। सेठारे रहि कर ड़ा माळ्या लोक जु पठोच्याइ वन्दिरे थिवा सनुयय भझक भार्या माछा रई इड़ व्यासिना माश्रि पर्व उच्छव गहळरे कुलाड़ गड़ठार चौराइ घेनि गले। ता जु नेइ वारवारे रखाइले। सेठारे ता जुर रग्णभञ्जी वो लिवार प्रच्य गोटी-ए यन्म हेले। से पुन्न कु न भझ घेनि राजवंस पुन्न ए वो लि समस्त माळ कन्द जु देखाइ ता जु चाएत कि लिश्कर तसकर घेनि नीळकराठ भञ्ज उपरे भेवर लगाइले। चो ड़ी ग्रांग ड़ जिमदारिकु चायत्त कि चायतर धिर नुचागां गड़ जिमदारिकु चायत्त कि चायतर घरि नुचागां गड़ जिमदारिकु चायत्त कि चायतर स्वार घरि विशेष नग्न स्वर धिर रिगर घर देले। एपिर दुइ चाड़रे घर देखि नीळकराठ भञ्ज रहिन पारि राज्य छाड़ि वाहारि गले। से वाहारि यिवार रग्णभञ्ज राजधानिरे वसाइ गोविन्द भञ्ज थाट रजा वेभारक हो इथिले ए १६२६ प्रकाब्द ग्रिकि व ०८ थे।

MS. Gumusara Bamsābaļī.

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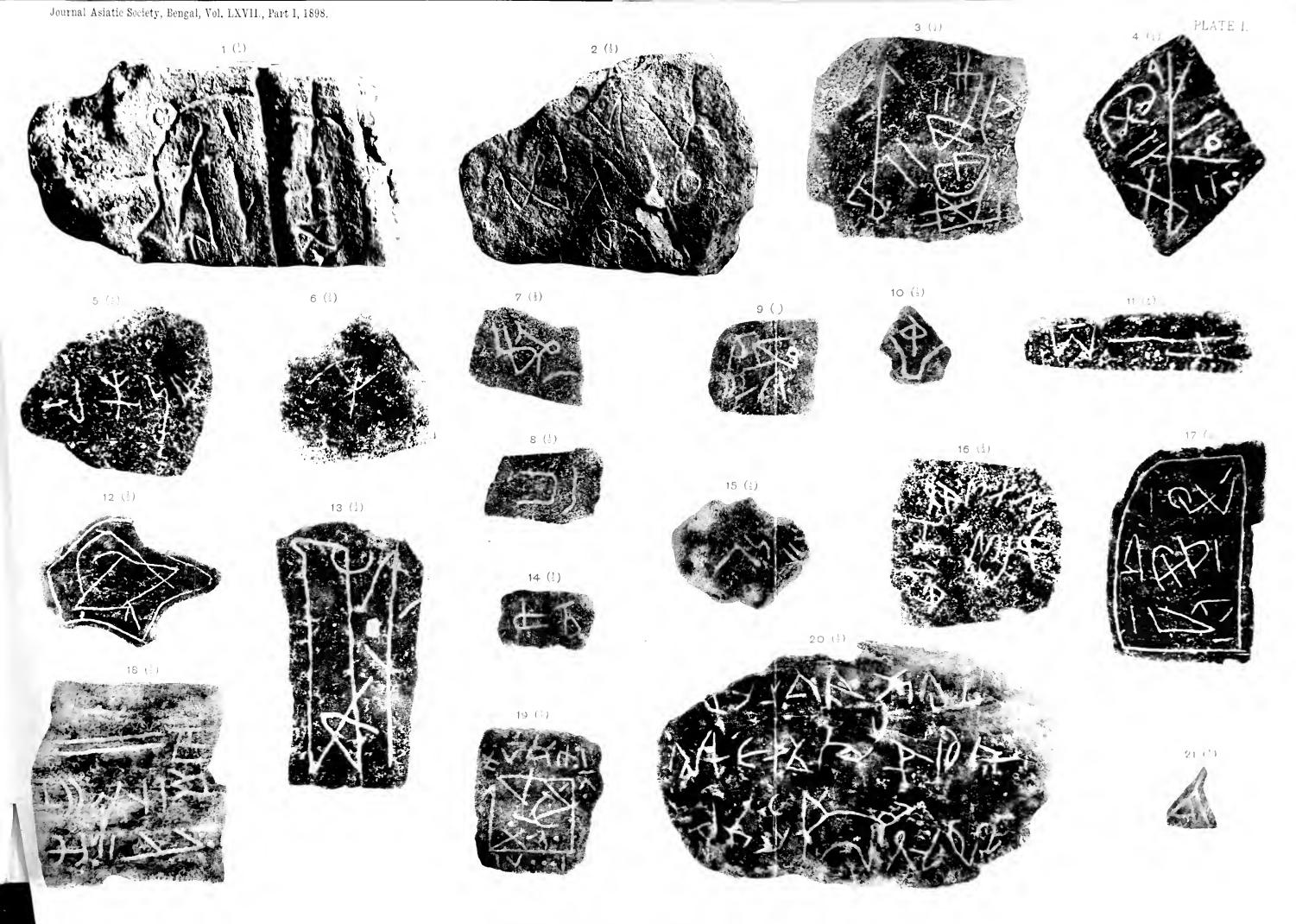
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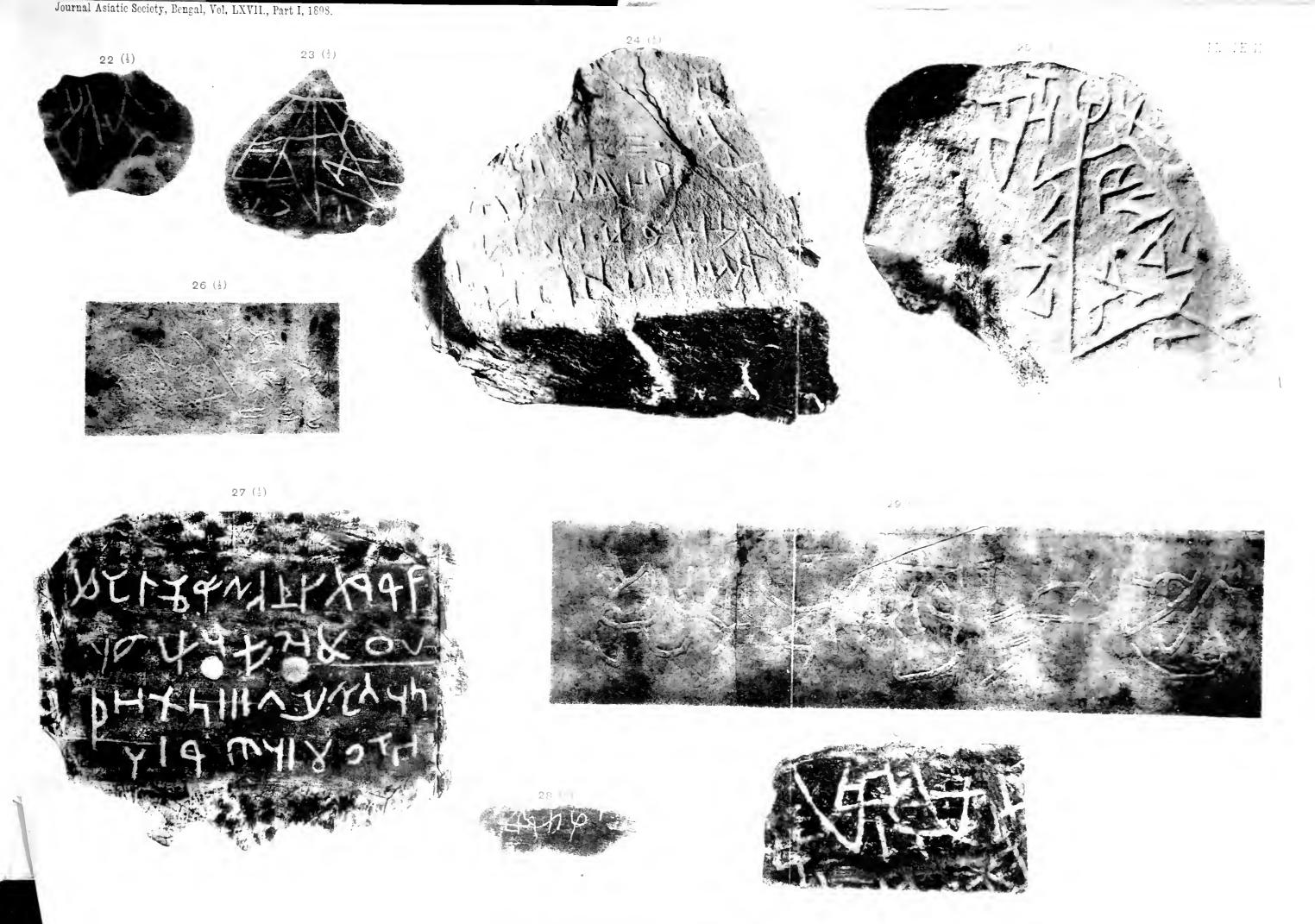
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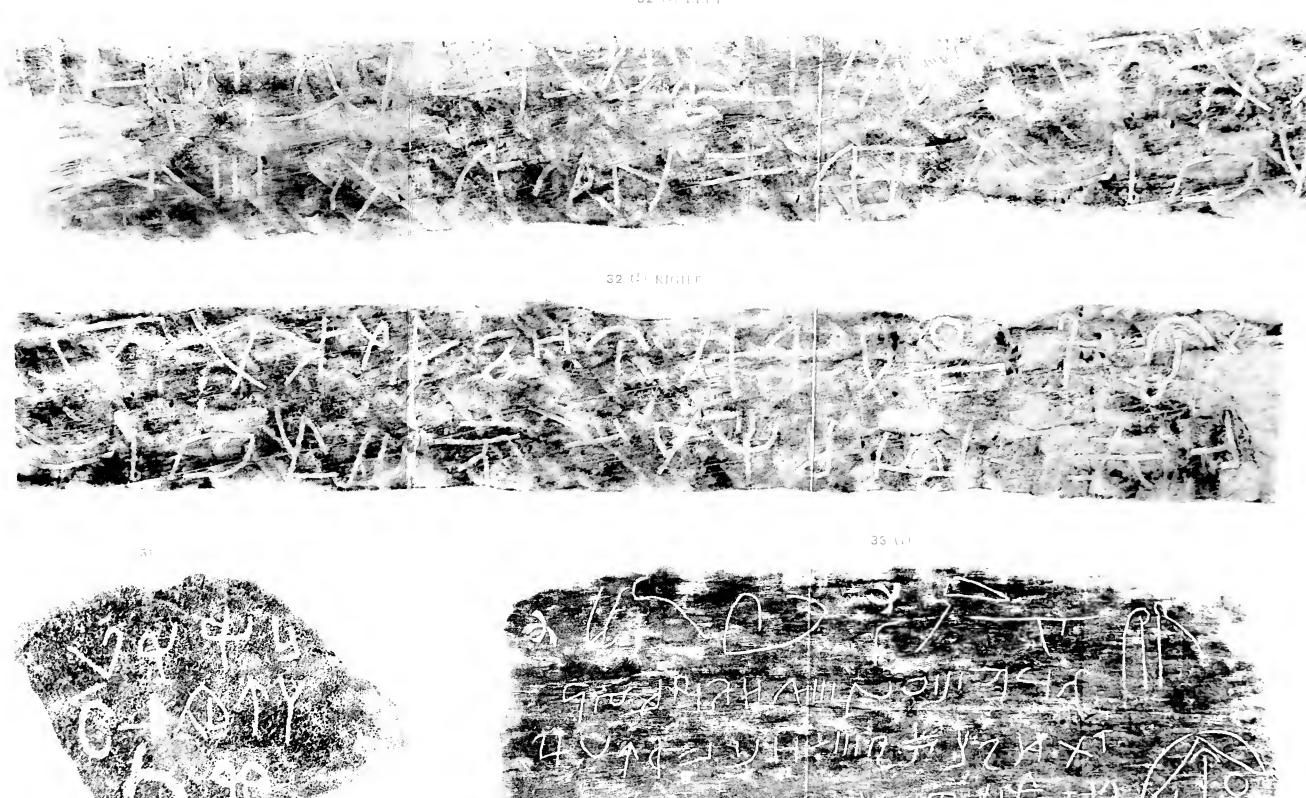
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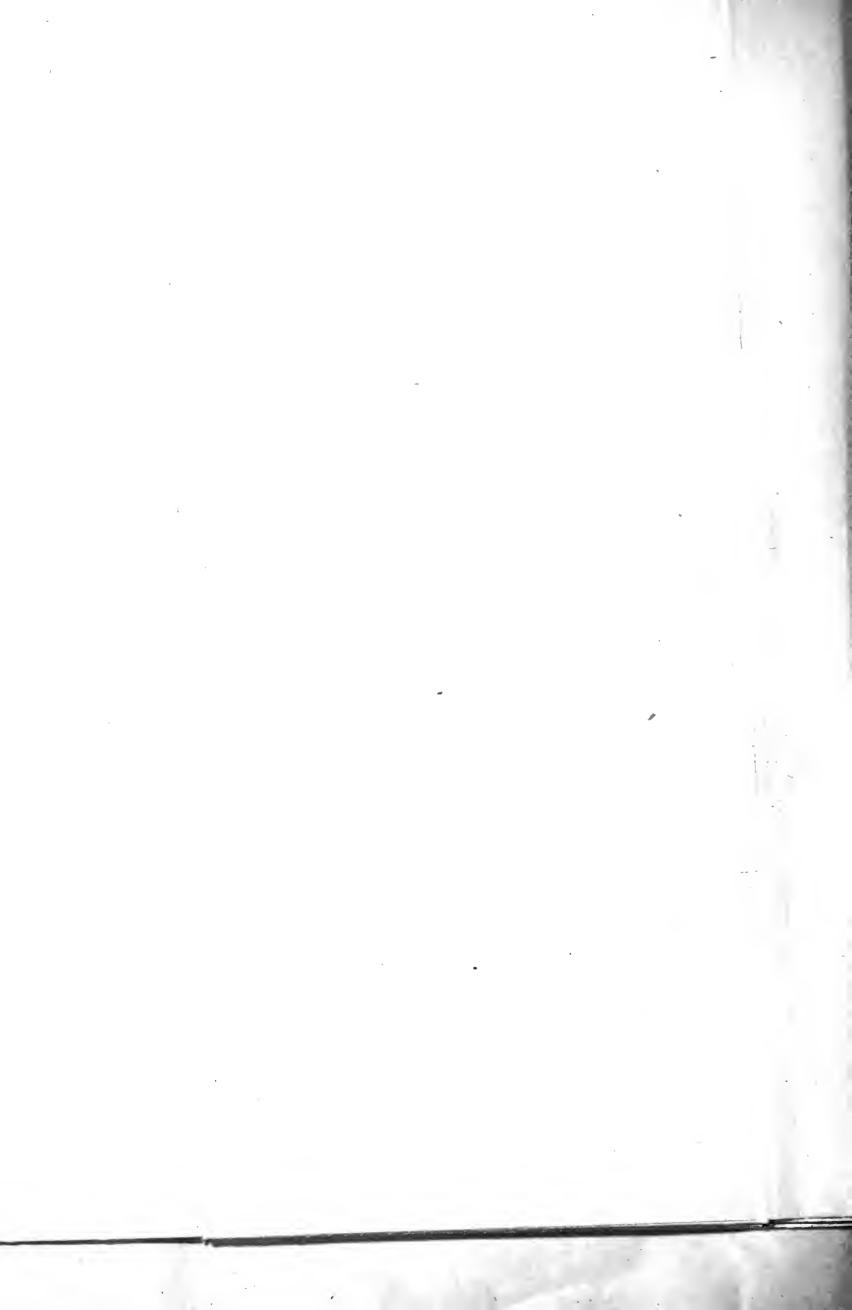


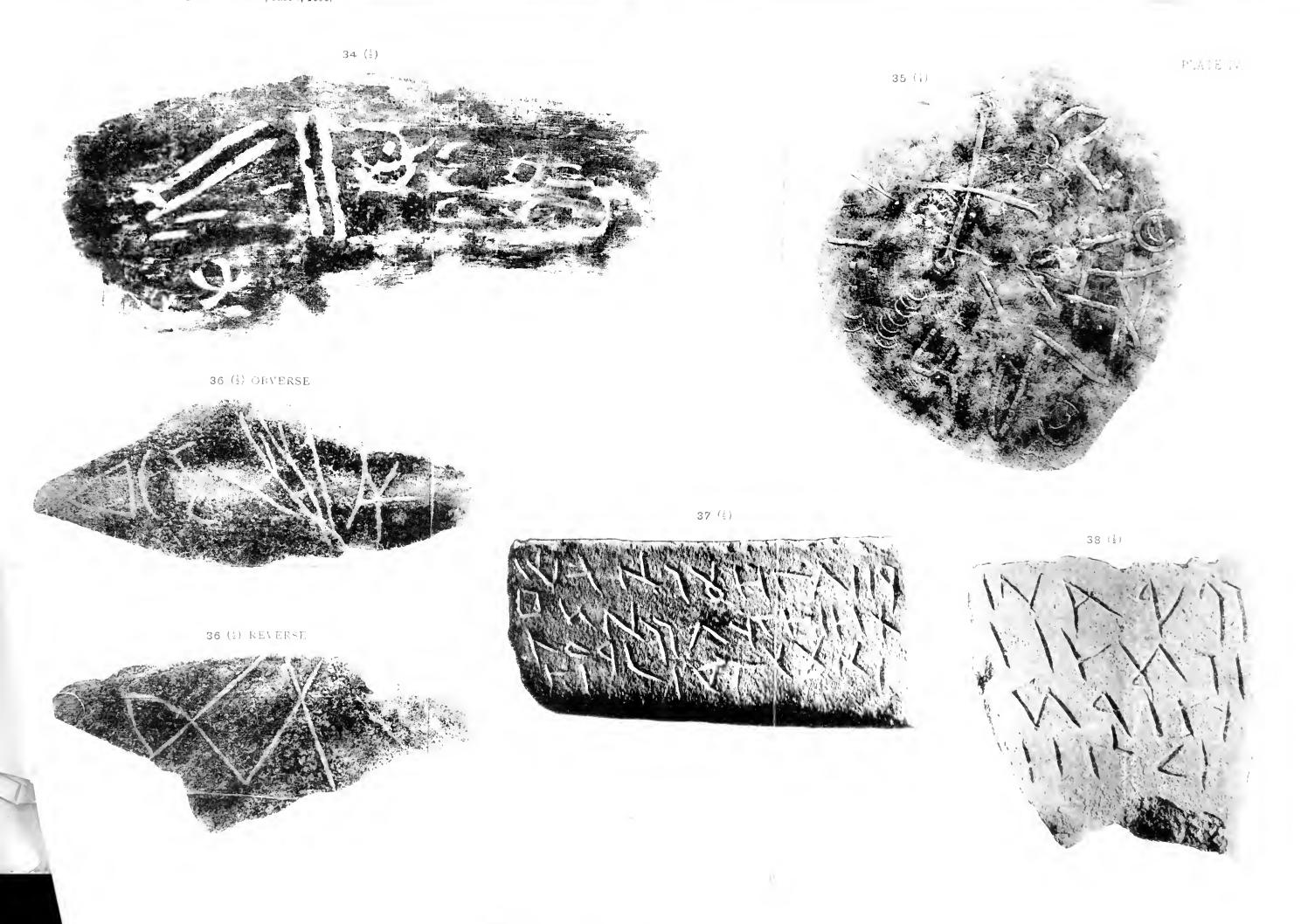


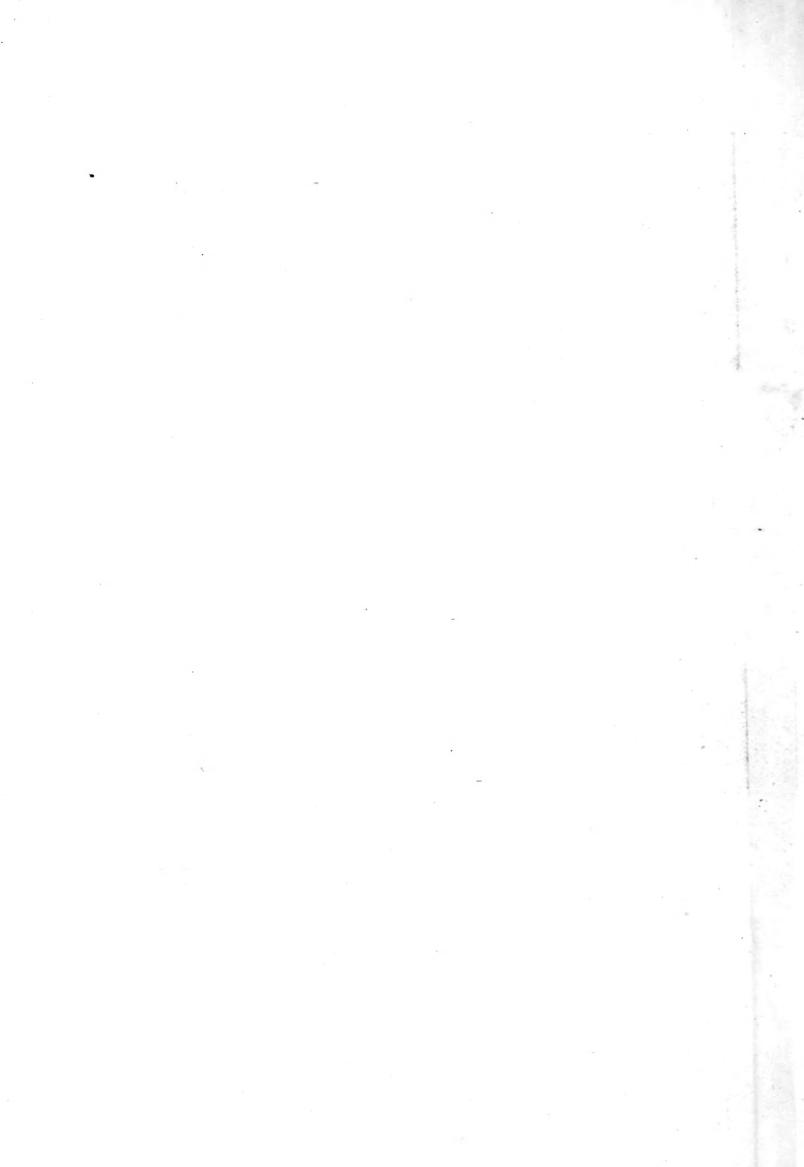
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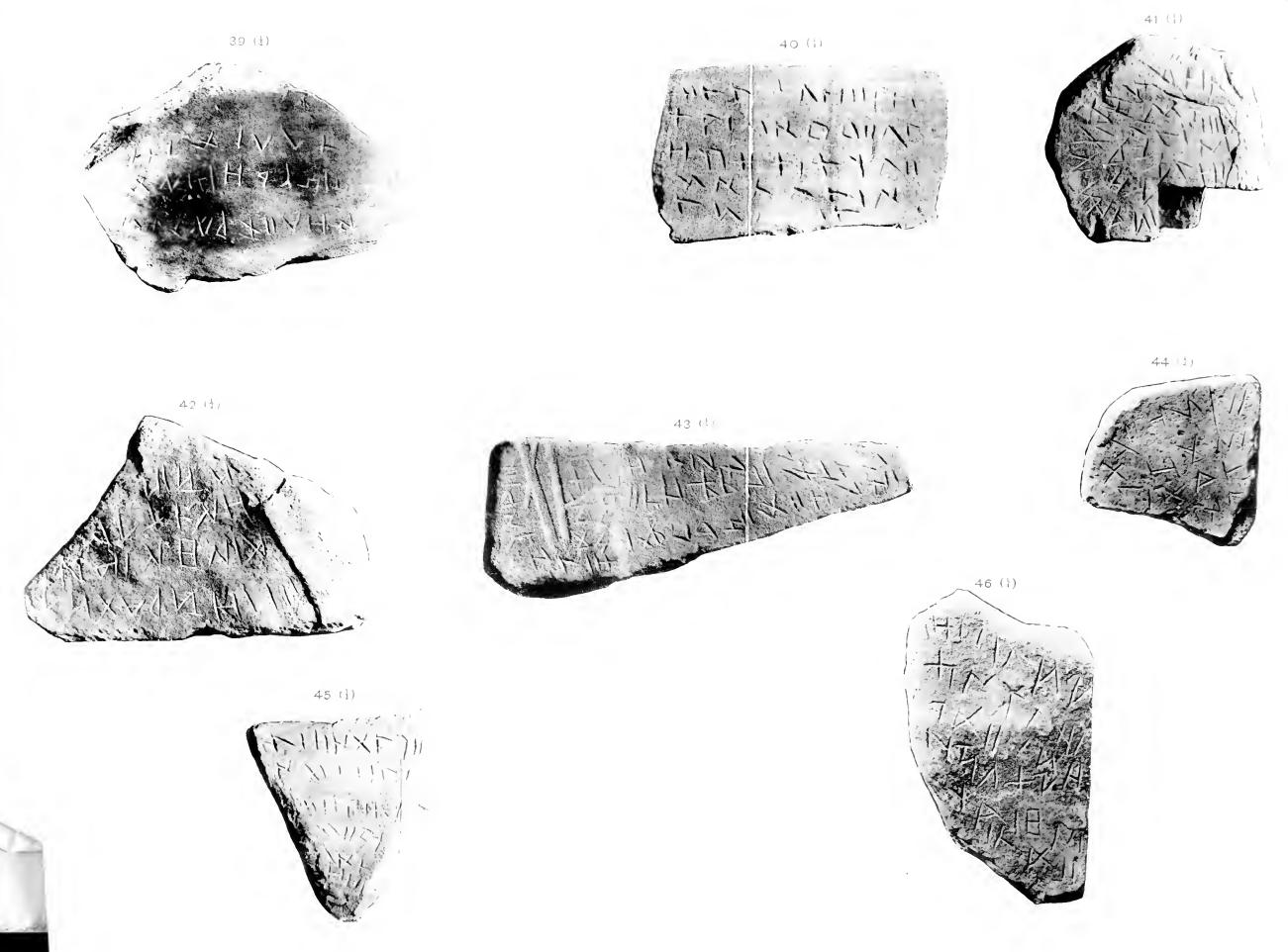


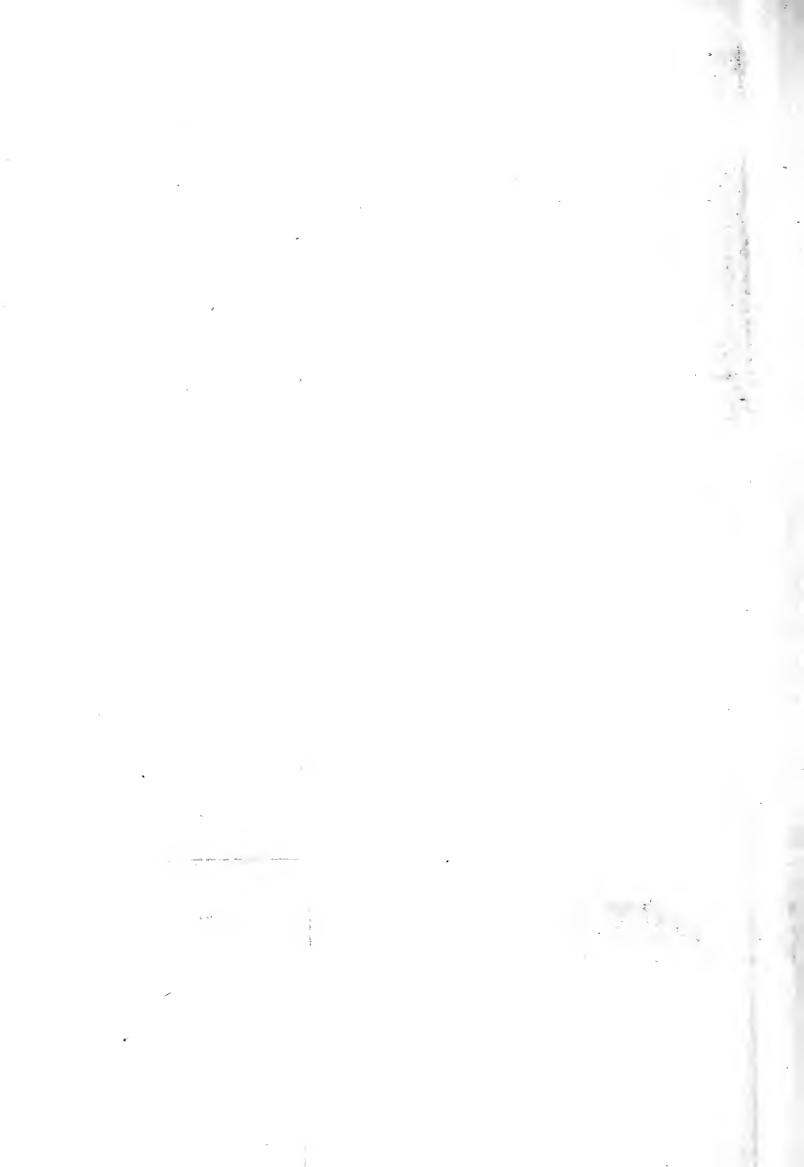
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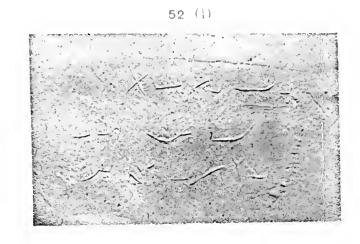










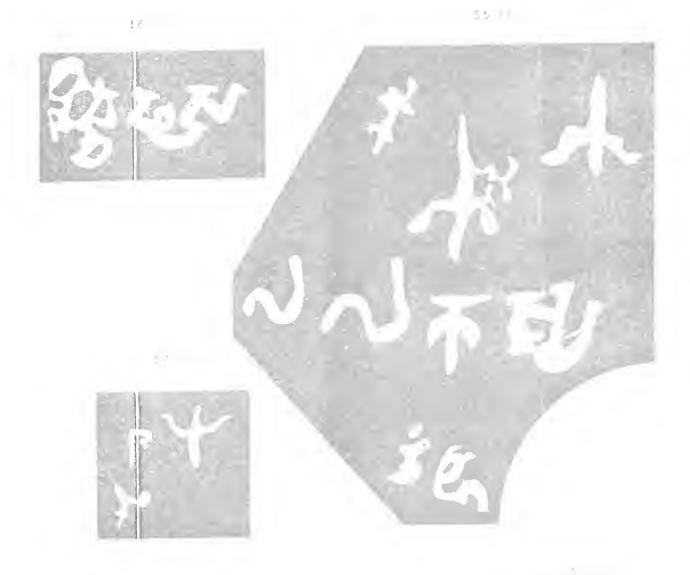


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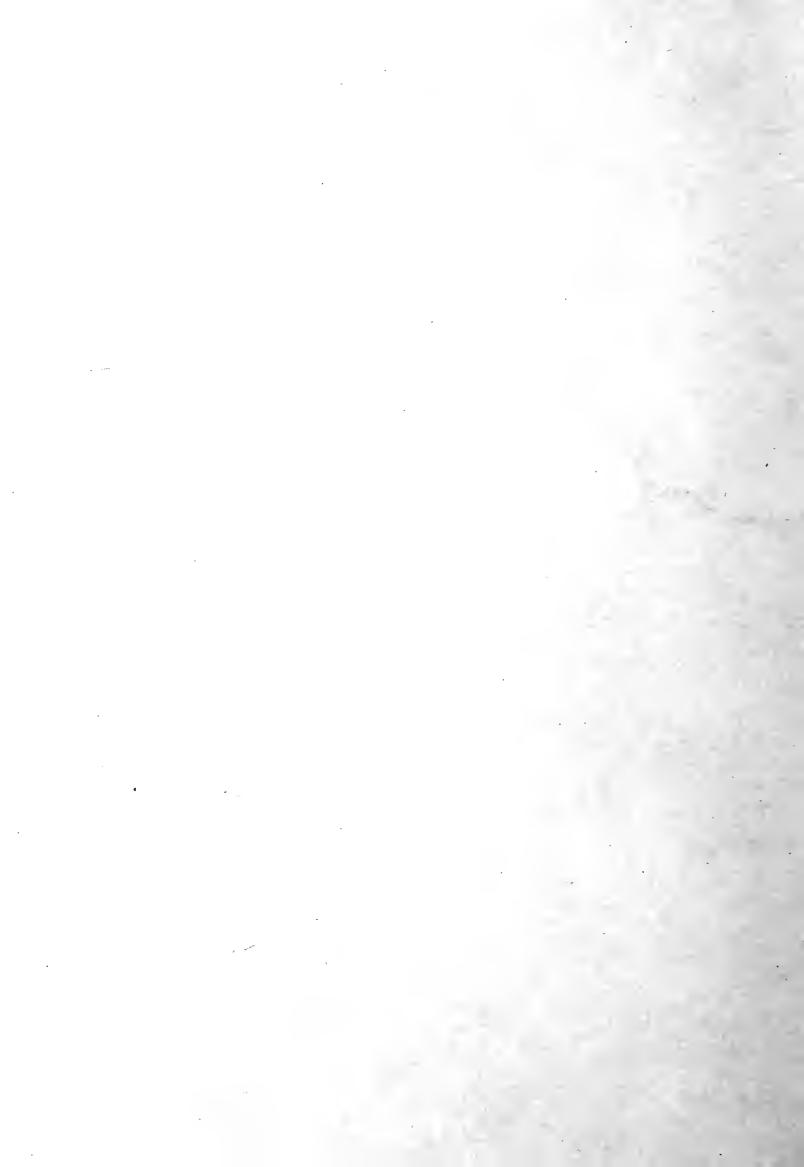




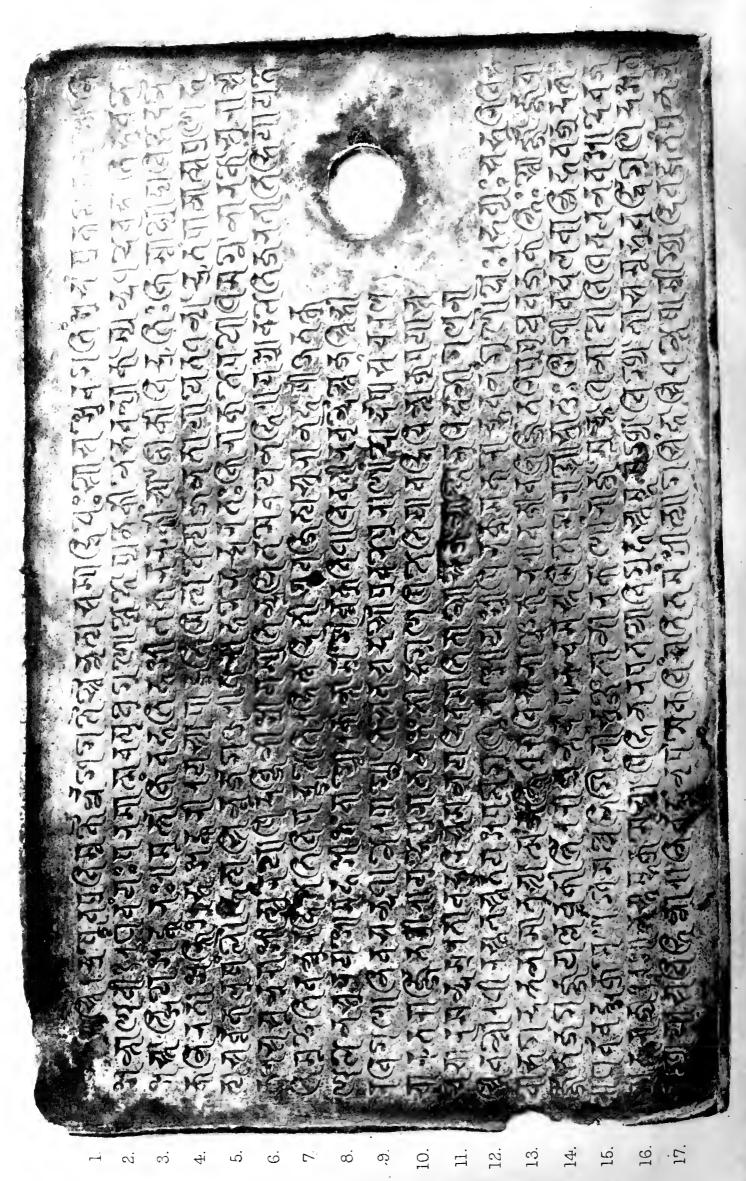




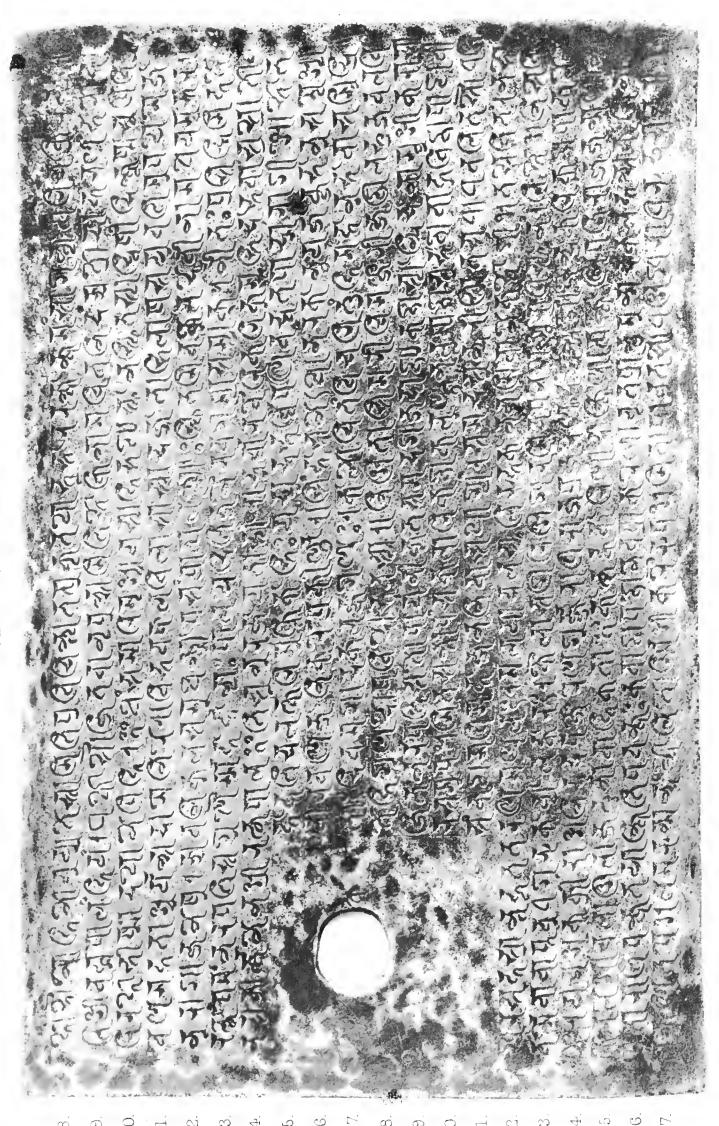




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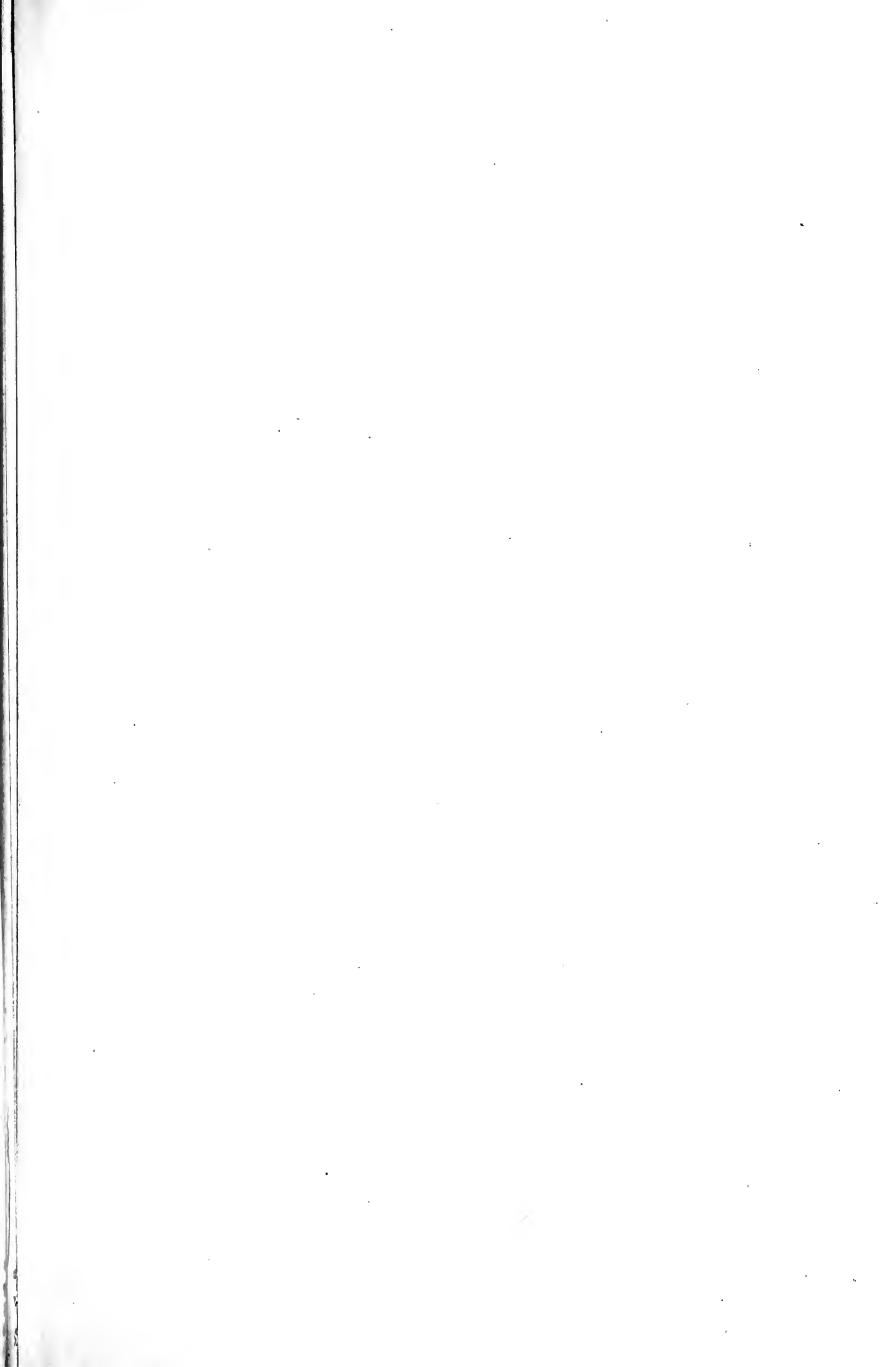


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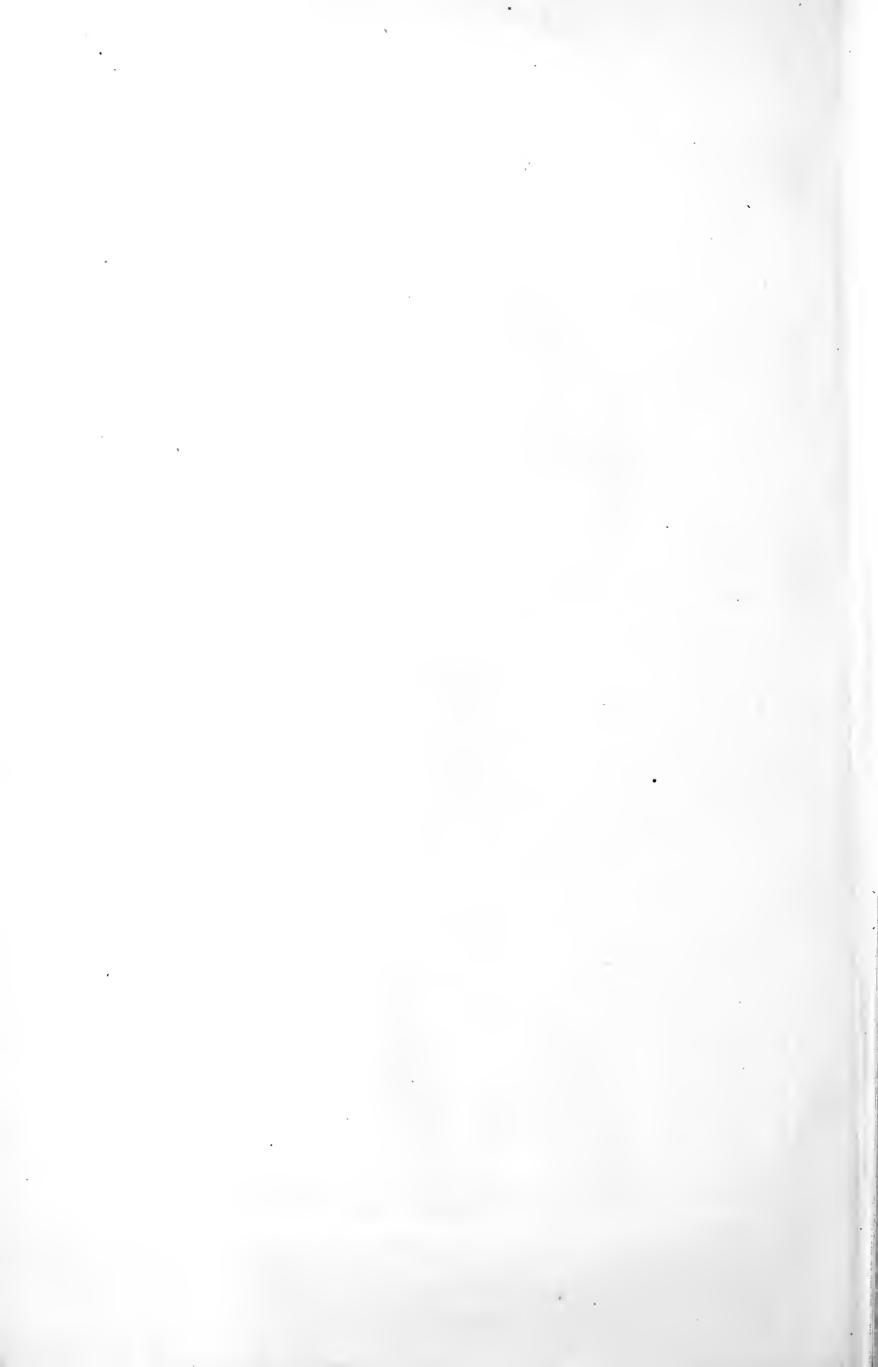


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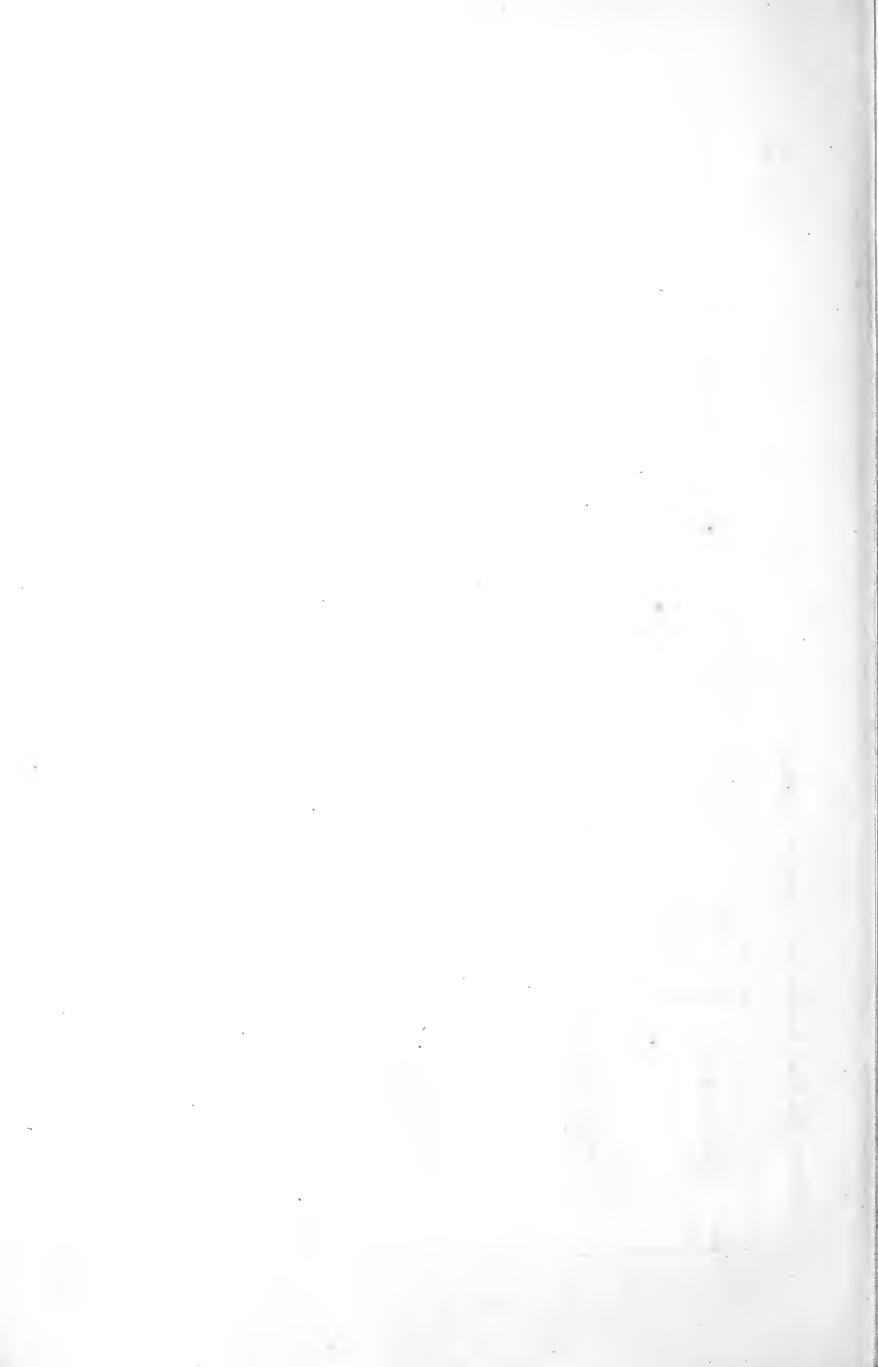






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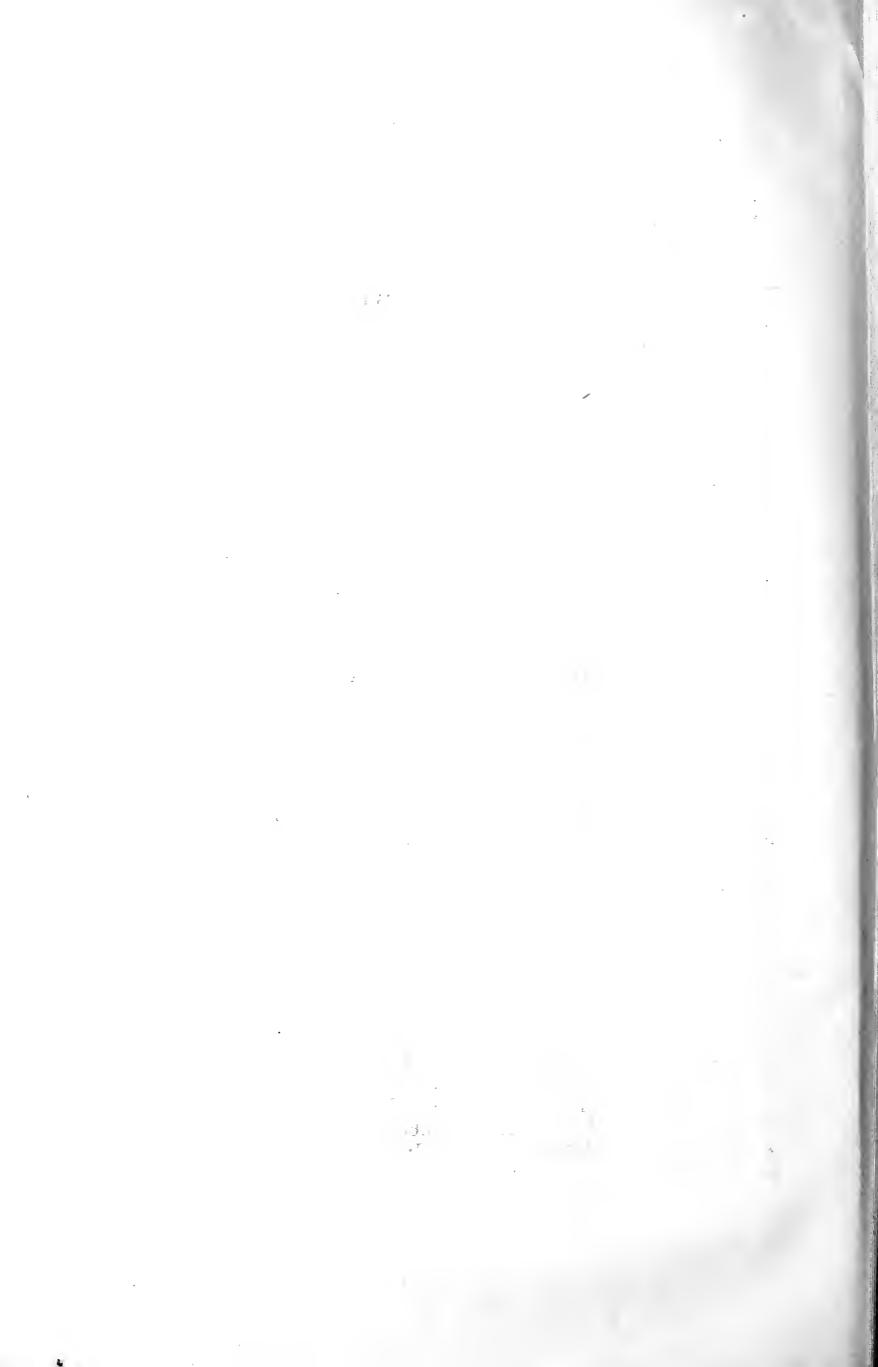


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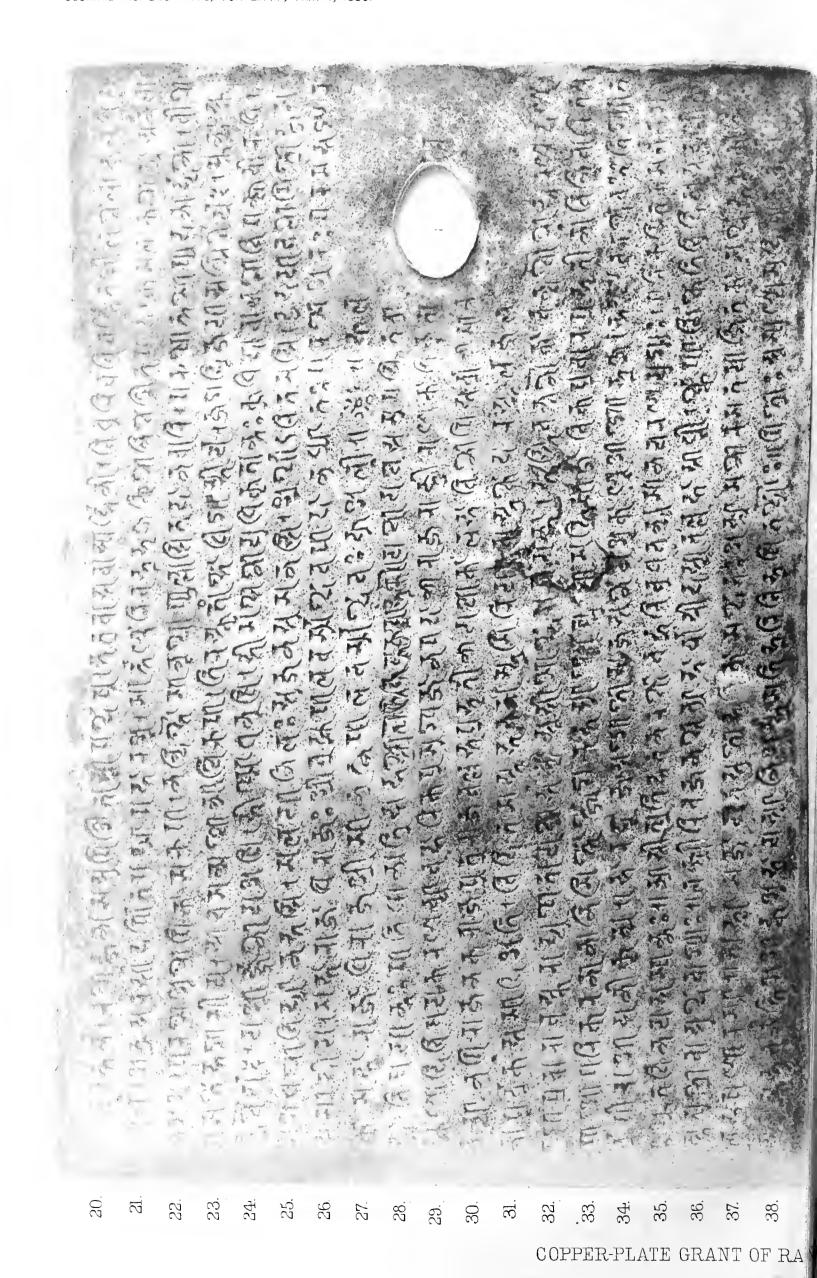


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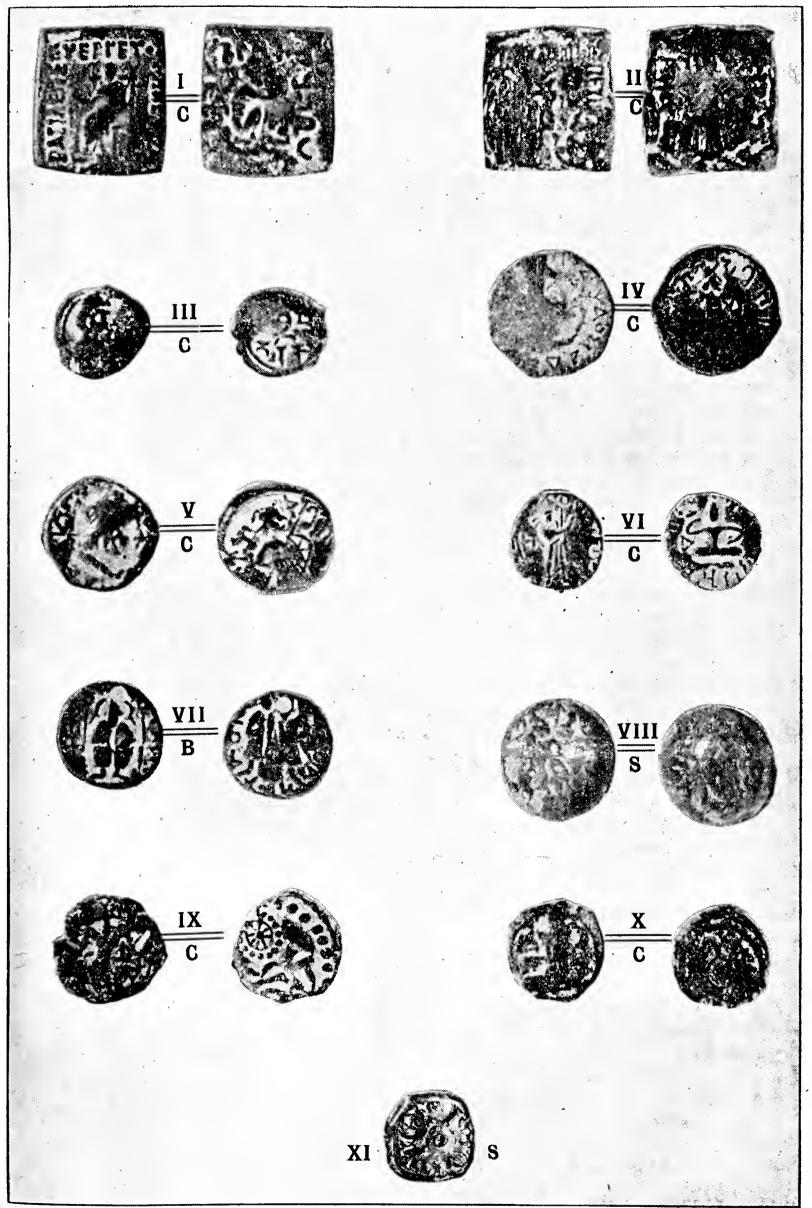
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